University of Alberta

Large-Scale Sporting Events: Organizing Committees and Stakeholders

by

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Abstract

The purpose of this thesis was to explore each component of the organizing committee-stakeholder relationship over time using a comparative case study of two large-scale sporting events—the 2001 *Jeux de la Francophonie* (Games of La Francophonie) and the 1999 Pan American Games.

An examination of the organizing committee provided details of its evolution and issues. The evolution of the organizing committee followed three operational modes: planning (bid phase, business plan, operational plan, divisional work packages), implementation (venue plans, Games time), and wrap-up (final report, legacy management) modes. The issues managed related to one of the following categories: politics, visibility, financial, organizing, relationships, operations, sport, infrastructure, human resources, media, interdependence, participation, and legacy. The issues managed depended on the organization's operational mode, on the organizing committee member's hierarchical level (top, middle or lower-level management) and role, and on the stakeholders. One specific issue examined in greater depth, image and identity management, illustrated how images and identities were constructed and managed based on the nature of the event, the context, and the individuals involved. An image-identity feedback loop occurred with stakeholders, where the media could act as a filter or transmitter of images and identities to and from the stakeholders. Verbal and symbolic communication strategies were used to manage the feedback loop.

An examination of organizing committee stakeholders resulted in the organizing committee's lower level staff (paid members) and volunteers (unpaid members), governments (municipal, provincial, federal), the community (residents, sponsors/businesses, schools, community groups), sport organizations (international, continental, national, provincial), the media (print, television, radio, internet), and the delegations (athletes, coaches, officials, support staff) comprising the list of stakeholders. This list, and stakeholders' salience levels, depended on the organizing committee member's hierarchical level.

Finally, an examination of the organizing committee-stakeholder relationship provided the trends in management strategies used by organizing committee members. The organizing committee moved from a proactive, to a reactive, to a proactive management approach as it moved from the planning to the implementation to the wrap-up mode. Besides time, decisions were also framed by the context and resources available.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIF	*Agence Intergouvernementale de la Francophonie* [Intergovernmental Francophonie Agency]
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CIJF	*Comité International des Jeux de la Francophonie* [Games of La Francophonie International Committee]
COJF	*Comité Organisateur des Jeux de la Francophonie* [Games of La Francophonie Organizing Committee]
CONFEJES	*Conférence des Ministres de la Jeunesse et des Sports des pays ayant le français en partage* [Conference of Youth and Sport Ministers of Countries Having French as a Common Language]
COO	Chief Operating Officer
CPM	Communications, Promotion, and Media
NAIG	North American Indigenous Games
NHL	National Hockey League
PAGS	Pan American Games Host Society
PASO	Pan American Sports Organization
SOC	Sport Organizing Committee
VIP	Very Important Person
VP	Vice-President
Vteam	Venue Team

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Cities and nations are under more and more pressure to establish themselves as players on the global stage. Such recognition can lead to political, cultural and economic benefits. One of the ways of establishing a world presence is by hosting mega-events (Roche, 2000). These types of events include, but are not limited to, expositions, major trade fairs, cultural events such as the Cannes Film Festival or the Glyndebourne Opera, and the particular focus of this research, large-scale sporting events. In the context of large-scale sporting events, political benefits include, notably, increased international recognition of the host region and the propagation of certain political values held by the government and/or the local population; cultural benefits include the possible strengthening of local traditions and values; and economic benefits include increased expenditures and employment within the region (Ritchie, 1984).

While large-scale sporting events can be described in general terms—each event and organizing committee being to a certain degree similar to other events and organizing committees and, at the same time, unique—little is known about how they operate and the nature of their environment. Most books and articles on such events are intended for popular rather than academic consumption (e.g., Jennings, 2000; McGeoch, 1994). Research articles analysing sport events tend to focus on tourism, marketing and sponsorship, economic impact, or political/municipal impacts (e.g., Brown, 2002; Crompton, 1995; Whitson & Macintosh, 1996; Yoon, Spencer, Holecek & Kim, 2000). Studying large-scale sporting events means going beyond research questions like 'what type of event was hosted' and 'what was the organizing committee's structure.' More precisely, it entails examining who is involved, what is needed to organize a large-scale sporting event, what the dynamics are between the various actors involved, and what are the results of the organizing committee's actions. There are therefore many issues that should be studied in regards to large-scale sporting events. These issues are what Bourdieu (1994) would call the apparent processes of sport events, processes that must be examined before the second level—the hidden processes—can be studied. As such, to begin the work of examining large-scale sporting event management, this thesis will examine elements of the apparent dimension of large-scale sporting events: the players involved and the management of the relationships among these players.

Players in Large-Scale Sporting Events

Organizing committees spend much time and money courting potential partners in order to acquire the necessary resources, financial or other, needed to host a given event. These "partners" are referred to in the organizational literature as stakeholders, any group or person who can affect or who is affected by an organization's actions (Freeman, 1984). Groups and individuals included in this definition comprise both the formally recognized or "official" actors as well as the informal, often overlooked, constituents such as special interest groups and local residents. Stakeholders may or may not approve of the actions of the focal or central organization, which can help or hinder the organization's present and future actions. The dynamics of the organization-stakeholder relationship is an integral part of the body of literature called stakeholder theory.

Various stakeholders have different expectations, needs and interests. The organization's nature or identity and how it presents itself to the various stakeholders—its image(s)—will, logically, have an impact on the type and level of support the organizing committee will receive from its stakeholders. Stakeholders can influence the successful staging of an event and, at the same time, satisfy their own needs and those of other stakeholders by affecting communication, information exchange, resource acquisition, organizational identity formation, and various other organizational actions (cf. Galaskiewicz & Wasserman, 1989; Pratt & Foreman, 2000; Rowley, 1997).

Hosting a large-scale sporting event requires the coming together of a variety of different stakeholders, each with their own expectations regarding their involvement in the event. Host committees spend a considerable amount of time (usually between two and ten years for major events) and money (millions of dollars) in developing plans and courting stakeholders (McGeoch, 1994). For example, London is expected to spend £500 million in bidding for the opportunity of hosting the 2012 Summer Olympic Games (Britcher, 2003).

Stakeholders such as sponsors, municipal and national governments, local and regional businesses, and the media all expect certain returns from their involvement in the event, and therefore seek to influence the organizing committee's decisions, regardless of the size or stature of the event. Sponsors want exposure, which will translate into financial gain for them (Brown, 2000; Cornwell, Relyea, Irwin & Maignan, 2000; McGeoch, 1994); the sport governing bodies want flawlessly run events; the media want good content to increase audience levels and revenues (Roche, 2000); environmentalists want "Green Games" that are environmentally friendly and leave an environmentally friendly legacy (Stubbs, 2001); and organizers, governments and local businesses want their community revitalized (Henry, 1999; Ley & Olds, 1988) and an increase in tourism that should translate into short and/or longer term positive economic activity for their community (Whitson & Macintosh, 1996).

One of the major issues that emanates from the stakeholder literature is the way in which stakeholders' often competing demands and expectations are managed by the focal organization (Clarkson, 1995; Scott & Lane, 2000; Wood, 1994). Within the context of large-scale sporting events, stakeholders have differing expectations regarding what they want to gain from their involvement in the event. Therefore, the organizing committee is faced with managing these competing demands. This is made more difficult as the number of stakeholders increases because it leads to more demands and differing expectations having to be addressed by the focal organization. Choosing which stakeholders to satisfy can profoundly affect the nature and success of a large-scale sporting event. Therefore, the organizing committee must choose its stakeholders carefully and be mindful of which stakeholders' expectations must be met and which expectations are less important to achieving the committee's goals. But, the organizing committee's choices are not unlimited since some stakeholders, such as the international sport governing bodies, are involved regardless of whether or not the organizing committee wishes them to be involved.

Few insights about organizing committees are provided in the existing academic literature. Issues to be studied include characterizing the organizing committee's environment by determining who the stakeholders are, examining how the organizing committee manages these stakeholders, and examining how the organizing committee presents itself to its stakeholders through image and identity management. All these issues revolve around the organizing committee-stakeholder relationship. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to use a case study approach to describe the actors, issues relating to each actor, and management of these issues within the organizing committee-stakeholder relationship, based on stakeholder theory.

Overview of Thesis

Accordingly, the purpose of the research can be separated into two major objectives relating to the organizing committee-stakeholder relationship: (1) to determine the stakeholders that compose an organizing committee's environment; and (2) to determine the issues and management strategies used by organizing committees to resolve the issues and deal with the various stakeholder groups over time. The following sections provide an overview of the theoretical framework and methodology, as well as a summary of each paper and a description of the theoretical and practical contributions this thesis makes.

Theoretical Framework

In this thesis, stakeholder theory (cf. Clarkson, 1995; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984; Mitchell, Agle & Wood, 1997) is used as the theoretical framework. Stakeholder theorists are concerned with studying the relationship between a focal organization and its stakeholders. This involves not only acknowledging stakeholders' interests, but also understanding and formulating strategies to respond to stakeholders and their interests. Research in stakeholder theory can focus on three different parts of the organization-stakeholder relationship: focal organization itself, the stakeholders, and the actual relationship between the focal organization and its stakeholders.

Managers of the focal organization must contend with stakeholders having different characteristics and needs. Before being able to ascertain the various needs of stakeholders, the stakeholders must be identified. Moreover, the moment there is more than one stakeholder for an organization there is the possibility of conflicting demands. The organization is thought to prioritize stakeholders in order to deal with the more important stakeholders and their demands before other stakeholders (Mitchell et al., 1997). Thus, the theoretical basis for this study utilizes the concepts of stakeholder identification and stakeholder salience in order to understand the organizing committee's stakeholder environment. Each concept will now be discussed.

Stakeholder identification. The employees, the shareholders, the customers, the suppliers, and the public stakeholders (e.g., governments) are the stakeholders usually identified for a given organization (Clarkson, 1995). Within the context of mega-events, Ritchie (1984) identified different stakeholders that may be involved: the local populace, the local government and local businesses. To these, Emery (2001) added the international governing body, the national governing body, the local organizing committee, the media, and sponsors.

How are stakeholders actually identified? Wolfe and Putler (2002) systematically reviewed the literature and found that researchers usually identified stakeholders using a role-based definition where stakeholders are grouped according to a common role. This means that other ways of grouping stakeholders such as Carroll's (1996) specific (direct impact) and generic (more removed) stakeholder group identification or Sirgy's (2002) internal, external and distal stakeholders are largely ignored. However, a definite answer on how managers define/identify stakeholder groups remains elusive. As such, it may be best to ask these managers whom (individuals, groups, and organizations) their organization deals with. This approach should confirm whether or not a role-based definition (or another approach) is used by practitioners. Moreover, stakeholder identification is inherent within stakeholder classification, which includes determining stakeholder salience, with Mitchell et al. (1997) being one of the most common examples. This classification is described below.

Stakeholder salience. Once stakeholder groups and their roles are identified, the next step is to determine salience (Wolfe & Putler, 2002). Various typologies of stakeholder salience have been developed. Mitchell et al. (1997) suggested that certain characteristics could be used to help differentiate stakeholders in order to help managers determine which ones are more salient. These characteristics are based on relative levels of cognitive constraints (i.e., perceived *power* and *legitimacy*) and time (i.e., perceived *urgency*).

Power, as conceptualized by Mitchell et al. (1997), refers to the ability of those stakeholders to influence outcomes according to their desires, more so than others. Mitchell et al. mention three types of power: 1) *coercive power* or the use of force or threat; 2) *utilitarian power* or the use of material resources or financial incentives; and 3) *normative power* or the use of symbolic influences (Etzioni, 1964). The second characteristic in Mitchell et al.'s typology is legitimacy. A stakeholder's action or claim will be seen as legitimate if it is appropriate, socially acceptable and expected (Mitchell et al., 1997; Agle, Wood & Sonnenfeld, 1999). This will depend on the prevailing standards of the network within which the stakeholders and focal organization operate (Scott & Lane, 2000). Legitimacy can result in a firm actually becoming a stakeholder for the focal organization (Carroll, 1993). For example, a "certified" sponsor of an organizing committee will have a more legitimate claim than a local company that is only tangentially associated with the event. The third characteristic, stakeholder urgency, refers to the stakeholders' claims on the focal organization's attention as being time sensitive and critical from the stakeholder's point of view (Mitchell et al., 1997). For example, the management of the organizing committee for the 2004 Athens Summer Olympic Games experienced first hand the pressure from the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the media because the organizing committee was not meeting those stakeholders' demands related to Games operational readiness. In fact, stakeholder pressure continued for Athens until the opening ceremonies of the Games as venue construction actually lasted until that time.

Based on these three characteristics, Mitchell et al. (1997) proposed a typology that may help in determining stakeholder salience. This typology relates to whether a stakeholder possesses power and/or legitimacy and/or urgency. Possessing all three attributes, the authors proposed that *definitive* stakeholders should be the most active and able to pursue their own interests so the manager faced with such stakeholders is hypothesized to pay much attention to these stakeholders. Three different categories of *expectant* stakeholders, or stakeholders possessing two attributes each, can be identified: *dependent* (urgency and legitimacy), *dangerous* (power and urgency), and *dominant* (power and legitimacy). Expectant stakeholders have strong interests in the outcome of a given issue, but lack an important attribute that demands priority response by management. The authors proposed that the remaining stakeholders required little more than passive monitoring as attributes may be gained or lost and coalitions may be formed between stakeholders to advance certain issues. *Latent* stakeholders, or stakeholders with one attribute each, included *dormant* (power), *discretionary* (legitimacy) and *demanding* (urgency) stakeholders. *Non-stakeholders* possessed no attributes (Mitchell et al., 1997).

Since Mitchell et al.'s (1997), other researchers have used their typology to describe their stakeholders. For example, Driscoll and Crombie (2001) describe a dispute between a major pulp and paper company (J.D. Irving Limited or JDI) and a local monastery and spiritual retreat (Nova Nada), where JDI was cutting down trees close to Nova Nada. The monks attempted to stop this activity. Driscoll and Crombie's analysis of Nova Nada's stakeholder attributes resulted in Nova Nada being first identified as a demanding stakeholder. It then became a dangerous stakeholder, and evolved into a definitive stakeholder. As well, Friedman and Mason (2004) described how in the case of the public subsidizing of stadiums, the general public is often a dominant stakeholder and groups opposing such a scheme are dependent stakeholders. But after a public vote on the issue, the general public may lose its legitimacy and become a dormant stakeholder.

Methodology

In order to examine organizing committees and stakeholders, an exploratory two-setting case study approach was used (cf. Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2003). Case studies are especially valuable as they provide the opportunity to describe the events surrounding a specific case over a period of time in an in-depth manner. They are appropriate when "how" or "why" questions are asked about events over which the researcher has little or no control (Yin, 2003), such as "how was the organizing committee viewed?" or "why was that stakeholder so important?" The data collection and analysis methods used in this study allowed me to iterate and integrate among theory development and theory testing using qualitative and quantitative methods.

The combination of a theoretical framework based on stakeholder management and of a case study methodology helps to position this thesis within a critical realist ontology and soft post-positivist epistemology (cf. Bhaskar, 1989; Crotty, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Firestone, 1990; Guba, 1990; Samdahl; 1998). This positioning is based on using a theoretical lens to ground the theory and ensuing research, in being able to explain social phenomena, and in being able to build knowledge while still being able to be critical about what is already "known" about a particular topic. An explanation of this ontological and epistemological stance is provided in Appendix A.

An overview of the two settings is provided below. As well, data collection and general data analysis procedures are described, including research quality. Paper-specific data analysis procedures are described in each respective paper.

Setting 1. The first mega-event studied was the *Jeux de la Francophonie* held in Ottawa-Gatineau, Ontario-Quebec, Canada, from July 14th to 24th, 2001. The Games brought together over 2,600 athletes and artists and 400 officials from more than 50 countries for eight sport competitions (basketball, beach volleyball, boxing, judo, soccer, table tennis, track and field, and wheelchair sports) and eight cultural competitions (busking, painting, poetry, sculpting, singing, photography, storytelling, and traditional-style dance) (COJF, 2001). Medals were awarded in all competitions.

The organizing committee, the *Comité Organisateur des Jeux de la Francophonie* or COJF (Games of La Francophonie Organizing Committee), was formed in 1997. The organizational structure included a volunteer board of directors, paid staff, and Games time volunteers. Staff members were responsible for the day-to-day activities and were supported by volunteers during Games time.

Three international organizations oversaw the event: the parent organization, the CONFEJES (the *Conférence des Ministres de la Jeunesse et des Sports des pays* *ayant le français en partage* or the Conference of Youth and Sport Ministers of Countries Having French as a Common Language); for sport events, the CIJF (the *Comité International des Jeux de la Francophonie* or the Games of La Francophonie International Committee); and for cultural events, the AIF (*Agence Intergouvernementale de la Francophonie* or Intergovernmental Francophonie Agency). The CONFJES can be seen as the Commonwealth's equivalent in the Francophonie, with strong French government influence on event preparation and hosting. The focus of the *Jeux de la Francophonie* is youth, sport excellence and the celebration of the Francophonie culture (CIJF, 2000). For this edition of the Games, the sporting competitions followed the corresponding international sport federation's rules and regulations.

These specific Games were chosen as the case study since the researcher had proximate access to the administrators and stakeholders of the COJF, having been employed as the sport officials' coordinator during the Games. The researcher was, in effect, a participant-observer.

Setting 2. The second setting was the 1999 Pan American Games held in Winnipeg, Manitoba from July 23rd to August 8th, 1999. There were 4,949 athletes from 42 countries across the Americas who participated in a total of 35 Olympic sports and six non-Olympic sports in 22 venues. There were 2,266 technical officials and technical support officials and over 20,000 volunteers who also took part. Some events were qualifying events for the 2000 Summer Olympics to be held in Sydney, Australia. As such, many top athletes attended the Pan Am Games. These Games were the third largest Games in North America after the Los Angeles and Atlanta Olympic Games. Almost 1 million people participated in one way or another, including 500,000 spectators and over 2,000 media (PAGS, 1999).

The organizing committee, the Pan American Games Host Society or PAGS, was formed in 1994. PAGS was led by a volunteer board of directors composed of stakeholder representatives (e.g., governments, Canadian Olympic Committee, community members). The board of directors determined the general direction of the Games (i.e., vision, mission, policies, and business plan). In order to speed up decision-making, an executive committee was established. Volunteer divisional chairs were responsible for the various functions (such as games operations, volunteers, sport, and finances). Originally, the Games were to be volunteer-driven and delivered, with minimal staff support. However, mid-way through the preparations, volunteers realized the need for staff support. As such, a mirror team of paid staff was created to handle the day-to-day issues. The Games' planning became staff-driven but the Games themselves remained volunteer-delivered.

The parent organization for the Games is PASO (Pan American Sports Organization). The focus of the Pan American Games is purely sporting excellence. As for the *Jeux de la Francophonie*, the Pan American Games followed the corresponding international sport federation's rules and regulations for each sport.

These Games were chosen as the second setting for a more in-depth analysis of the research questions because they fit the following criteria to allow for comparisons between the two settings. The chosen games had to be a multi-sport event of an international nature held in North America and preferably in Canada. This would create a similar political and socio-cultural setting, especially if the games were held within four years of the *Jeux de la Francophonie*—in order to have similar global economic realities. The games also had to be of similar size to the *Jeux de la Francophonie*. Finally, the chosen games and its organizing committee/stakeholder members had to be accessible to this author. The 1999 Pan American Games fit these criteria once the help of the University of Alberta's Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation was secured in order to gain access to the members.

Similarities and differences between settings. Both events were recently held multi-sport events in Canada. The similarities provided a necessary basis for comparison. However, there were some differences which allowed the testing of ideas in different types of multi-sport events. First, the Pan American Games are a regional, Olympics-based event while the *Jeux de la Francophonie* are a politically created (by the 53 ministers of the CONFEJES) event with cultural competitions also included in the program. Second, by virtue of its nature, the *Jeux de la Francophonie* includes one additional stakeholder, international governments (ministers of youth, culture and sport, and ambassadors) that the Pan American Games do not have. Third, the *Jeux de la Francophonie* are a relatively new event, having been created in 1987 by the CONFEJES, to be held under the auspices of the CIJF, whereas the Pan American Games were created in 1932 by the International Olympic Committee, to be held under the auspices of PASO.

Data collection. There are two main data collection steps in this thesis: 1) gathering data from archival material to better understand the organizing committee structure, to draw a preliminary list of the stakeholders surrounding the organizing committee, and to draw a preliminary list of issues, as well as to support, complement and build upon the various aspects raised by the interviews; and 2) semi-structured (retrospective) interviews to further examine the organizing committee, its stakeholders, their needs, the issues raised, and the general perception and management of the various stakeholders by the organizing committee.

Having a theoretical framework and acquiring archival material allows for semi-structured (with mainly open-ended questions) face-to-face interviews (with appropriate probes) to be used with a purposive sampling (e.g., representatives of different stakeholders), an approach that is common to case study research. Arksey and Knight (1999, p. 96) argued that such interviews are "designed to obtain information about people's views", their ideas and their experiences. Weed (2003) explained that a purposive sampling technique helps to draw knowledge from the most informed sources within the organization.

Interviewees provided their informed consent prior to interviews. Tables 1-1 and 1-2 list the managerial and stakeholder interviewees, respectively, and the interview method (in-person or by phone). Interviews were carried out at three different hierarchical levels within the organization for comparison purposes and to get a better overall sense of the structure and processes of the organization. The

TABLE 1-1

Managerial Interviewees, Interview Method, and Number of Stakeholders Identified

	Jeux de la Francophonie				Pan American Games			
Hierarchical Level	Position	Member Type	Interview Method	Number of Stake-holders Identified	Position	Member Type	Interview Method	Number of Stake-holders Identified
Top Managers	Co-President	Volunteer	Phone	7	Chairman of the Board	Volunteer	In-person	5
	Executive Director	Staff	In-person	8	President and Chief Executive Officer	Staff	In-person	7
					Chief Operating Officer	Staff	In-person	8
Middle Managers	Adjunct Director General, Corporate Services	Staff	Phone	6	Senior Vice-President	Staff	In-person	6
	Director of Communications, Media Sector	Staff	Phone	7	Chair Communications, Promotions, and Media (CPM),	Volunteer	In-person	3
					Chair Games Operations	Volunteer	In-person	5
					Chair Marketing	Volunteer	In-person	7
					Chair Sport	Volunteer	Phone	5
					Chair Volunteers	Volunteer	In-person	4

	Jeux de la Francophonie				Pan American Games			
Hierarchical Level	Position	Member Type	Interview Method	Number of Stake-holders Identified	Position	Member Type	Interview Method	Number of Stake-holders Identified
					Vice-President (VP) CPM	Staff	Phone	7
					VP Sport	Staff	In-person	6
					VP Games Operations	Staff	Phone	3
Lower Managers	Assistant Adjunct Director General, Sports	Staff	Phone	5	Manager Sport Operations	Staff	In-person	3
					Co-chair Volunteer Recruitment, Interviewing, and Placement,	Volunteer	Phone	4
					Manager Volunteers	Staff	Phone	5
					Venue Team Leader 1	Volunteer	In-person	2
					Venue Team Leader 2	Volunteer	Phone	2

TABLE 1-2

Stakeholder Interviewees and Interview Method

Jeux de la Francophonie		**Pan American Games**	
Stakeholder	Interview Method	Stakeholder	Interview Method
Government of Quebec	Phone	Government of Canada	In-person
Government of New Brunswick	Phone	Government of Manitoba	In-person
City of Gatineau	Phone	City of Winnipeg	In-person
City of Ottawa	Phone	Aboriginal Community	Phone
Canadian Athlete Ambassador	Phone	Sponsoring Company	Phone
Auditing Firm	In-person	Local Newspaper	In-person
Community Media Group	In-person	Host Broadcaster	Phone
		National Sport Organization	Phone

interview questions were open-ended and pertained to the three parts of the organization-stakeholder relationship: the organization itself, the stakeholders, and the relationship between the organization and its stakeholders. For example, organizing committee interviewees were asked the following questions: how would you describe the organizing committee; how would you describe this stakeholder; how would you describe the relationship with this stakeholder; what issues did you deal with; and what management strategies did you use to resolve these issues? Stakeholder interviewees were asked about their organization's role in the Games, the reasons for affiliating themselves with the organizing committee, their perceptions of the organizing committee, the results of the relationship as they saw it, and the importance of the relationship for their organization. Throughout the interviews, prompts were used to obtain more information or to clarify certain aspects. The interview protocol is found in Appendix B. Figure 1-1 provides an illustration of the various research questions. Memos and field notes were written throughout the data collection process (cf. Yin, 2003).

FIGURE 1-1. *Relationship between Research Questions and Research Purpose.*

Organizing Committee	**Relationship**	**Stakeholders**
-Description of event and organizing committee (o/s); -Image and identity construction (o/s); -Event management issues (o); -How image and identity are constructed (o).	-Organizing committee management strategies (o); - Stakeholder tactics (s); -Partnership characteristics (o/s); -Partnership Issues (o/s); -Management issues (o/s); -Success of partnership (o/s).	-Who the stakeholders are (o); -How the stakeholders are viewed (o) -What do the stakeholders want (s); -Which stakeholders are more important (o).

Legend:
(o): Question asked to organizing committee
(s): Question asked to stakeholders
(o/s): Question asked to both the organizing committee and the stakeholders

Specific data collection methods are as follows. The main archival source used to determine the initial layout of the stakeholder groups was the COJF's formal accreditation system. This system was found within the delegations' manual, the *Manuel d'événement rédigé à l'intention des délégations* (Event manual written for delegations). Other archival material included the technical officials' manual, organizational websites, local newspapers, and organizational material such as stakeholders' evaluations, communications, information, COJF meeting minutes, and my daily diary. Over 141,000 words were considered for analysis from COJF archival material.

I then conducted semi-structured interviews: five with COJF managers at three different hierarchical levels and seven with stakeholders (see Tables 1-1 and 1-2). The interviews were conducted in 2002, one year after the event. The interviews were conducted in French, the preferred language of all interviewees, and I, being a native French speaker, translated them verbatim—while keeping the sense of the sentence as much as possible—into English (cf. Bauer & Gaskell, 2000). If any points of contention were raised during transcription (e.g., the appropriate translation for a popular expression), I consulted a second native French speaker. The interview transcripts resulted in 76,656 English words.

A total of 99 archival documents about PAGS and its stakeholders were collected from various sources: local, national and international media, organizational websites, organizational documents (e.g., venue team leader games time diary, final report, and annual reports). Over 117,000 words were considered for analysis from the archival material. I also conducted 17 interviews across three hierarchical levels of PAGS and with eight stakeholders (see Tables 1-1 and 1-2). The same interview and transcription procedure was used as for the *Jeux de la Francophonie* interviews, except that all interviews were conducted in English, the preferred language of all interviewees. These interview transcripts resulted in a total of 207,892 words.

General data analysis methods. Content analysis of stakeholder, issues, strategies, and image/identity management was then conducted. Pattern matching was possible through intra-interviewee (and archival material) coding, inter-interviewee (and archival material) comparison, and cross-case comparison (cf. Eisenhardt, 1989;

Yin, 2003). All data were read twice to gain familiarity with the information. Given that many discoveries occur in the process of analyzing case study data, emerging issues were listed during the coding process.

The first step for the data analysis was to identify the stakeholders. Here, the basic unit of analysis was the "stakeholder-manager relationship" (Mitchell et al. 1997, p. 868), that is, the dyadic relationship with a certain mega-event stakeholder from the perspective of the individual organizing committee interviewee. The procedure was initially developed using information from Miles and Huberman (1994), Bauer and Gaskell (2000), and Yin (2003). In order to increase the validity and reliability of the findings from this study (Yin, 2003), the procedure was modified based on discussions among the authors of this study, discussions with a colleague with expertise analyzing interview data, and discussions with a confederate who independently analyzed the data.

All sections pertaining to an interviewed manager's perceptions about stakeholders (i.e., anything relating to identification, perceived attributes, salience, or prioritization) were coded to determine the list of stakeholder groups (manually for the COJF and assisted by ATLAS.ti 5.0 for PAGS). The coding protocol appears in Appendix C. The process was repeated to ensure all relevant sections were highlighted. To facilitate analysis and verification, all coded sections relating to one interviewed manager or stakeholder group—whether found in interviews or archival material—were also grouped into one file. Archival material and stakeholder interviews were coded in a similar way as the manager interviews. Figures 1-2 and 1-3 are an illustration of the COJF and PAGS stakeholder maps, respectively. Subsequent, paper-specific data analysis can be found in each respective paper.

Research quality. According to Yin (2003), there are three elements that determine the quality of a case study: construct validity, external validity, and reliability. Construct validity refers to the extent to which empirical indicators match the concepts as defined. I strove to achieve construct validity in many ways. The interview and coding protocols (Appendices B and C) used the conceptual definitions provided by Mitchell et al. (1997). I also used multiple sources of evidence, namely archival material and interviews with managers and stakeholders. A careful chain of evidence linked the case study protocol, highlighted citations within specific documents and interviews, an organized database of notes, documents, narratives, etc., and the case study report (e.g., this thesis.)

External validity refers to the study's generalizability, both analytical and empirical. The latter may apply primarily to temporary organizations of mega-events and perhaps smaller festivals and events. Analytic generalizability was enhanced by careful use of the theoretical terms and relationships in the stakeholder literature (especially Freeman, 1984, and Mitchell et al., 1997).

Reliability refers to the demonstration that the study can be repeated and can give the same results. Temporal reliability was enhanced by consistent use of a case study protocol in both cases, appropriate field procedures, a guide for the case study report, and the building of the case study database. Inter-rater reliability was enhanced by having a knowledgeable confederate independently analyze the stakeholder-related

FIGURE 1-2. *COJF Stakeholder Map.*

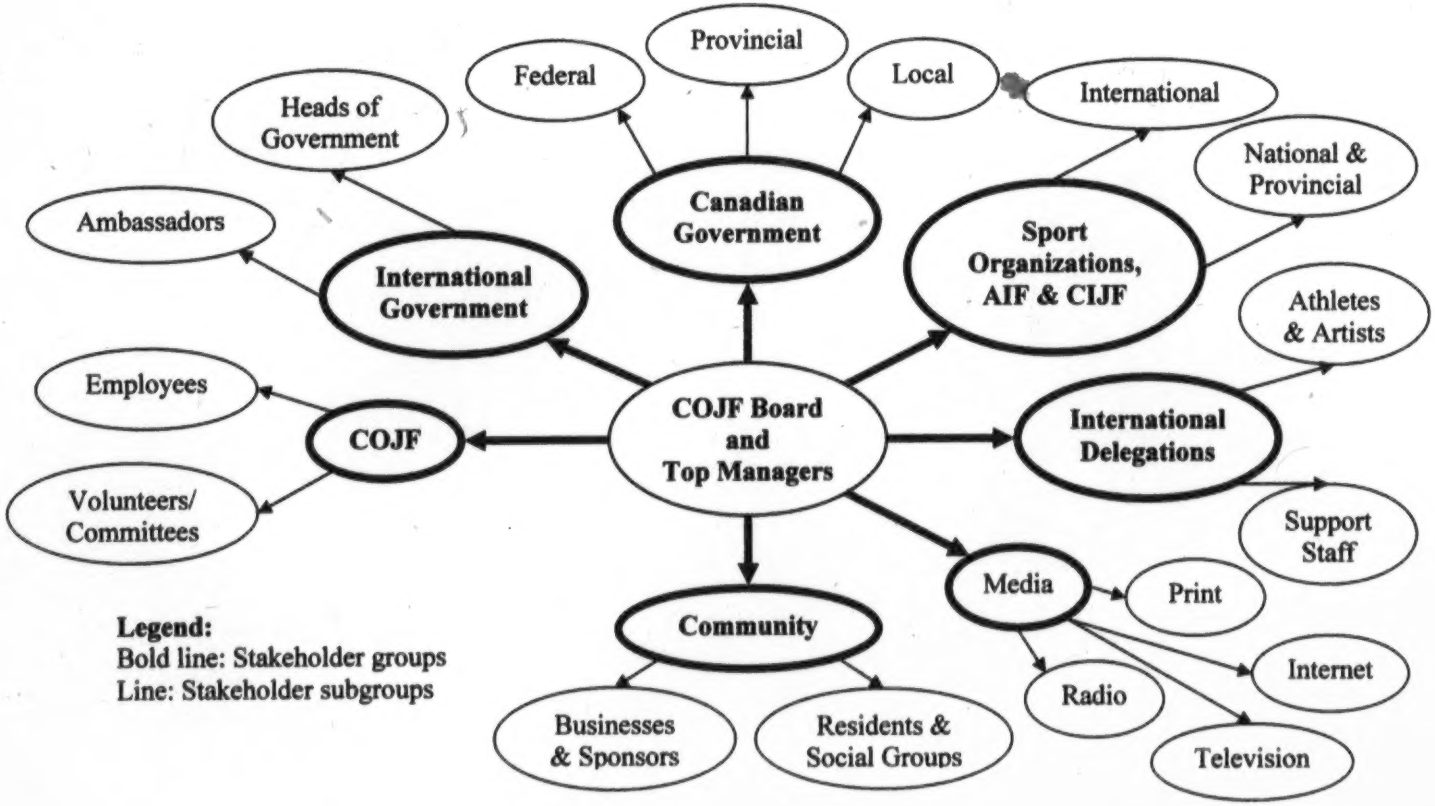
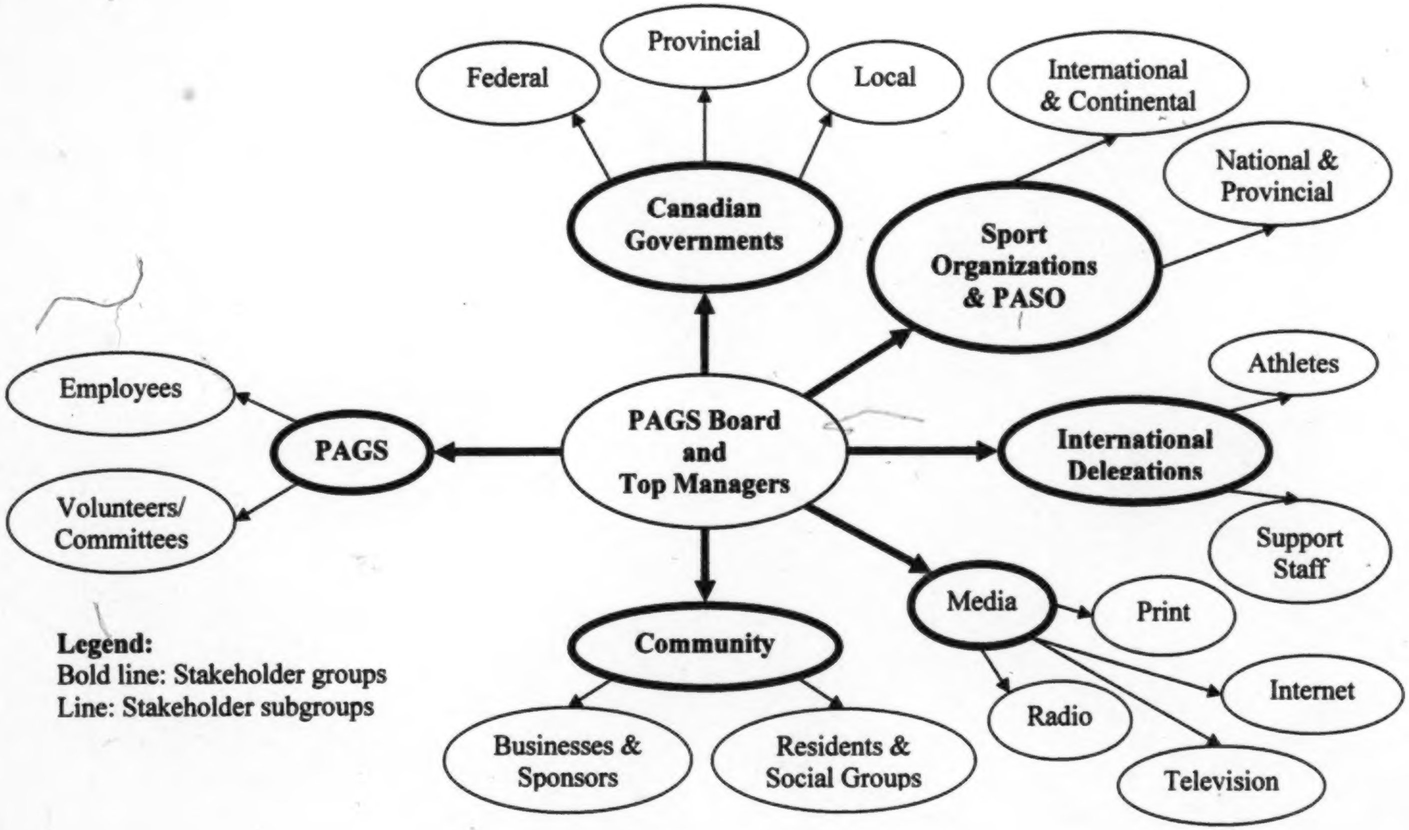

Heads of Government
Federal
Provincial
Local
International
National & Provincial
Ambassadors
Canadian Government
International Government
Sport Organizations, AIF & CIJF
Athletes & Artists
Employees
COJF
COJF Board and Top Managers
International Delegations
Volunteers/ Committees
Support Staff
Media
Print
Community
Internet
Radio
Businesses & Sponsors
Residents & Social Groups
Television
Legend:
Bold line: Stakeholder groups
Line: Stakeholder subgroups

FIGURE 1-3. *PAGS Stakeholder Map.*


Federal
Provincial
Local
International & Continental
National & Provincial
Canadian Governments
Sport Organizations & PASO
Athletes
Employees
PAGS
PAGS Board and Top Managers
International Delegations
Volunteers/ Committees
Support Staff
Media
Print
Legend:
Bold line: Stakeholder groups
Line: Stakeholder subgroups
Community
Internet
Radio
Businesses & Sponsors
Residents & Social Groups
Television

data from both cases using the aforementioned materials. First, the confederate analyzed two of five COJF interviews and met with the lead author to discuss preliminary findings and discrepancies. Any discrepancies were resolved by re-examining the original data and modifying the coding instructions as necessary. The confederate then proceeded to analyze the remaining data. Results were found to be highly similar (93% reliability, i.e., 93% of coding was the same), supporting the validity and reliability of the coding procedures. The confederate repeated the analysis for the PAGS interviews. Again, results were similar (83% reliability). The main difference was whether the urgency characteristic was always present or varying for the various interviewee-stakeholder dyads. My deeper knowledge about the cases accounted for these differences. Another knowledgeable confederate in the area of image and identity management reviewed the related data and also confirmed my findings.

As well, all interviewees had an opportunity to review and modify their own interview transcript before data analysis started. Interviewees and (external) experts in the field of sport event management also had an opportunity to read the second paper and provide any comments/additions. One addition was suggested; it was therefore included in the paper.

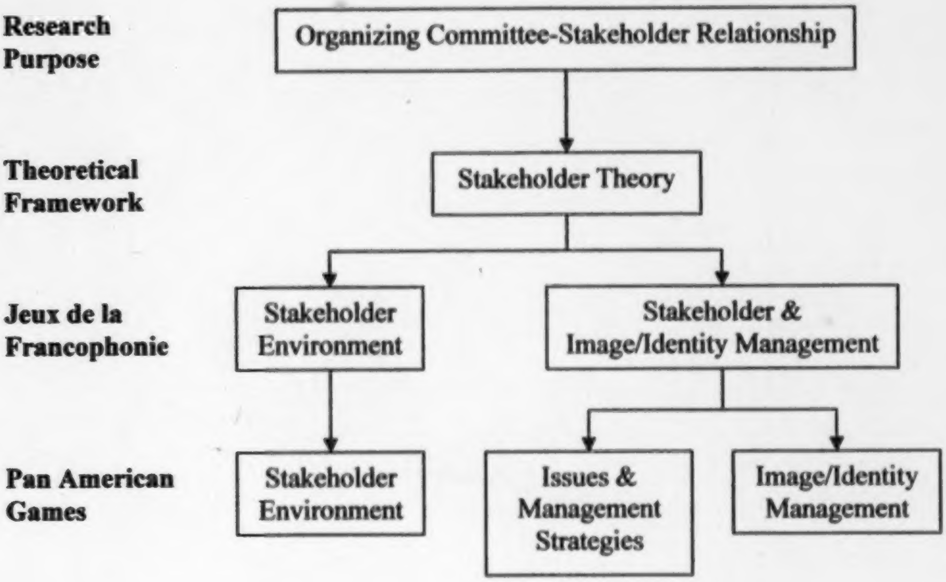
While there has been some debate about the validity and reliability of retrospective data, there seems to be agreement that such data can be useful if respondents are questioned about basic facts and concrete events (Golden, 1992; Miller, Cardinal & Glick, 1997). Participation in the Games was a highly memorable event in the interviewees' lives. They found the questions easy to answer. Moreover, these interviews allowed for a "before-during-after" type of questioning in one session. In order to decrease memory lapses, the interviewees were informed ahead of time of the nature of the research so that they could refer to any documentation they had in order to refresh their memory. In sum, I am confident that the case studies are valid and replicable.

Summary of Papers

This thesis follows the University of Alberta's "paper-based thesis" format. More specifically, it is composed of three papers that address the previously stated objectives. The first paper deals with characterizing the stakeholder environment (objective 1). The second paper deals with overall issues and management strategies over time from a broader point of view (objective 2). The final paper delves deeper into one specific and important issue in sport event management—image and identity management, which is and important part of the visibility issue category (see Paper 2)—in order to provide a more specific description of issue management and strategic approach (objective 2). Figure 1-4 provides a flow chart showing the relationship between purpose, theory, case study settings and the papers.

The purpose of the first paper titled "A Case Study of Stakeholder Identification and Prioritization by Managers" was to examine stakeholder identification and prioritization by managers using the power, legitimacy, and urgency framework of Mitchell et al. (1997). Findings from a multi-method, comparative case study of two large-scale sporting event organizing committees, with a particular focus

FIGURE 1-4. *Research Purpose, Theoretical Framework, Settings, and Paper Flow Chart.*


Research Purpose
Organizing Committee-Stakeholder Relationship
Theoretical Framework
Stakeholder Theory
Jeux de la Francophonie
Stakeholder Environment
Stakeholder & Image/Identity Management
Pan American Games
Stakeholder Environment
Issues & Management Strategies
Image/Identity Management

on interviews with managers at three hierarchical levels, support the positive relationship between the number of stakeholder attributes and perceived stakeholder salience. Managers' hierarchical level and role were found to have direct and moderating effects on stakeholder identification and perceived salience. Most stakeholders were found to be definitive, dominant, or dormant types—the other five types being rare. Power was found to have the most important effect on salience, followed by urgency and legitimacy. Based on the case study, several ways to advance the theory of stakeholder identification and salience are offered.

The second paper titled "Issues and Strategies in the Staging of a Sporting Event" explored an organizing committee's issues and strategies over time. The in-depth analysis of the 1999 Pan American Games highlighted how issues vary over time, across stakeholders and through the organizing committee hierarchy. Organizing committee members operated in three different modes as the organization evolved: planning, implementation, and wrap-up. Across these modes, issues moved from plan development to operationalizing those plans in venues to managing the legacy. Likewise, strategies changed from a proactive to a reactive to a proactive management approach. Issues depended on the stakeholders involved, though financial concerns were an overarching issue for all stakeholders. Specific issues dealt with by organizing committee members changed according to their hierarchical level, with top management dealing with the "major issues" such as overall objectives and budget control, middle managers dealing with communication and interdependence issues, and lower managers dealing with operational issues.

The third paper titled "Organizational Image and Identity Management in Large-Scale Sporting Events" explored how image and identity are constructed and managed in large-scale sporting events. The focus of the study was the role that organizing committees play in the image and identity management process. The results of a comparative case study indicated that managers create and manage three categories of images and identities: those based on the nature of the event, the context, and the individuals. Images were projected from the organizing committee to various stakeholder groups, both directly and indirectly, through the media. Organizing committees projected specific images to certain stakeholder groups, but these stakeholders often perceived many additional images, further indicating the presence of indirect channels of image transmission. The committees managed images and identities via verbal and symbolic communication strategies. Finally, stakeholders used these image and identity concepts to evaluate the events and determine their success, further supporting the importance of the image and identity management process.

Theoretical and Practical Contributions

Findings from this thesis will benefit research in sport management specifically relating to large-scale sporting events by increasing understanding of the stakeholder dimension of such events. Academics will benefit from the insights related to stakeholder theory and management. Practitioners will benefit through an increased understanding of their environment, stakeholder salience, and the main issues that are dealt with for each type of stakeholder involved in a specific large-scale sporting event.

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CHAPTER 2

Paper 1

A Case Study of Stakeholder Identification and Prioritization by Managers

A central question in stakeholder management is the identification and prioritization of stakeholders (Carroll, 1996; Clarkson, 1995; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984). Over the last eight years, the framework developed by Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) has become quite popular, as evidenced by over 138 citations in published work as of January 2005 according to queries within the Ebsco Host, Proquest, and Web of Science databases. Their framework categorized stakeholders in terms of power, legitimacy, and urgency and proposed that the more of these attributes a stakeholder has, the more salient the stakeholder is, defined in terms of managerial attention.

Although widely cited, there has been limited research using the Mitchell et al. (1997) framework as a tool for empirical analysis—only 15 articles were found to use power, legitimacy, *and* urgency. Most notably, only one article, Agle, Wood and Sonnenfeld (1999), was noted as attempting to test the fundamental proposition of the Mitchell et al. (1997) framework. Most studies take the power, legitimacy, and urgency attributes as a given and describe stakeholders in terms of these attributes. I believe a fundamental research question that needs to be addressed is: ***How do managers identify and prioritize stakeholders, and to what extent do these managerial practices fit with the Mitchell et al. (1997) framework?*** I examine this question using a multi-method comparative case study that combines the many strengths of past research. I believe a case study approach addresses well the suggestions of Mitchell et al. (1997, p. 881) to examine empirically if "present descriptions of stakeholder attributes [are] adequate … when examining real stakeholder-manager relationships." Moreover, it enables us to uncover "models of interrelationships among the variables identified here (and possible others) that reveal more subtle, but perhaps more basic, systematics" (cf. Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2003). My goal is to both test the fundamental proposition of Mitchell et al. (1997) and build theory from the cases (Eisenhardt, 1989).

The paper is structured as follows. I first review the Mitchell et al. (1997) framework and the research that applied it empirically. Second, I describe the specific data analysis techniques. I then present the findings and conclude with a discussion of limitations and suggestions for future research.

Literature Review

Mitchell et al. (1997) developed a theory of stakeholder identification and salience by bringing together three important social science concepts to characterize stakeholders: power, legitimacy, and urgency, which they labelled stakeholder attributes. They defined stakeholder salience as "the degree to which managers give priority to competing stakeholder claims" (1997, p. 854). Power is the (potential) ability of stakeholders to impose their will on a given relationship through coercive, utilitarian or normative means (Etzioni, 1964). A legitimate stakeholder is one whose actions and claims are seen as appropriate, proper, and desirable in the context of the social system (Suchman, 1995). Urgency is the degree to which a stakeholder believes its claims are time sensitive and/or critical. Mitchell et al. (1997) developed a typology of eight types based on whether or not a stakeholder has power, legitimacy, and/or urgency.

The central relationship in their theory was that the more attributes a stakeholder had, the greater its salience would be. Agle et al. (1999) found support for this general proposition in a survey of CEOs. Mitchell et al. (1997) made two other suggestions that I investigate in this paper. First, stakeholder attributes are variable, not steady state, so they recommended developing a dynamic theory of stakeholder salience. Second, the characteristics of individual managers would moderate the relationship between stakeholder attributes and salience. Agle et al. (1999) did not find support for this suggestion when using CEO values as the moderator.

As noted above, most empirical research used the Mitchell et al. (1997) framework as a tool for describing stakeholders. I identified three basic methods used in past research, and each has strengths and limitations. First, archival material, including prior research on the stakeholder, was used in six studies (Coombs, 1998; Driscoll & Starik, 2004; Elias, Cavana & Jackson, 2002; Friedman & Mason, 2004; Jeurissen, 2004; Ryan & Schneider, 2003). For example Ryan and Schneider (2003) assessed the power, legitimacy, and urgency of six different types of institutional investors by coalescing laws and past research findings. Media articles, websites, and books were also used (Coombs, 1998; Friedman & Mason, 2004). Advantages to this approach include unobtrusive access to data and the potential to examine stakeholder relationships over time. A major weakness of this approach is that it does not query managers directly. The importance of managers was highlighted by Mitchell et al. (1997, p. 854) who argued that a theory of stakeholder salience must "explain to whom and to what managers actually pay attention." Similarly, after investigating the attributes of institutional investors using archival material, Ryan and Schneider (2003, p. 422) recommended that "portfolio managers be queried regarding their perceptions of these attributes for different institutional investors."

Second, surveys were used in two studies to collect data, and these measured attributes using answers on Likert scales to closed questions (Agle et al. 1999; Buanes, Jentoft, Karlsen, Maurstad & Soreng, 2004). For instance, Buanes et al. (2004) surveyed 27 civil servants in their respective Norwegian coastal communities using a 5-point Likert scale for power, legitimacy and urgency. There are several limitations to this type of survey research. One concern is the short time frame involved in survey research. Agle et al. (1999) recognized this by asking CEOs to consider stakeholders for only the most recent month. Second, providing a pre-determined list of stakeholders in the survey may add bias by including unnecessary stakeholders or excluding important stakeholders. Third, the use of Likert scales can lead to stakeholders having similar levels of salience; for instance, Agle et al. (1999) reported that shareholder, employee, and customer salience average 6.3, 6.4, and 6.6, respectively. In contrast, ranking methods force respondents to prioritize stakeholders, consistent with the Mitchell et al.'s definition above (1997, p. 854; cf. Carroll, 1991; Hosseini & Brenner, 1992). Fourth, the results may be affected from the monomethod, mono-source data collection. Nevertheless, surveys featuring closed ended questions are often amenable to hypothesis testing (e.g., Agle et al., 1999).

Third, open ended interviews were used as part of seven case studies (Driscoll & Crombie, 2001; Harvey & Schaefer, 2001; Howard, Vidgen & Powell, 2003; IJzerman, Reuzel & Severens, 2003; Jiang & Bansal, 2003; McDaniel & Miskel, 2002; Winn & Keller, 2001). For instance, Driscoll and Crombie (2001) visited the Nova Nada monastery and conversed with six monks and a retreatant, examined archival material, and interviewed Mother Tessa, spokesperson for the monastery, for three hours. Harvey and Schaefer (2001) interviewed 60 people at six recently privatised UK utilities to characterize "green stakeholders" of the utility sector. These interviews facilitate a richer understanding of stakeholder relationships, especially in a descriptive sense, but theory building or testing has been limited. One notable exception is Driscoll and Starik (2004) who supplemented power, legitimacy, and urgency with proximity. Moreover, many of these studies did not provide details about the coding procedures which would enhance their validity and reliability. For instance, in Harvey and Schaefer's (2001) study, only five interviewees at four companies out of 60 interviewees at six companies reported questioning the legitimacy of the media, so concluding that this statement is an organizational or industry assessment is tentative.

Each empirical approach has its strengths and weaknesses, and I strove to capture most of the strengths in my design. Although Mitchell et al. (1997) defined power, legitimacy, and urgency in an objective fashion. They also acknowledged the importance of managerial perception of these attributes (p. 871). Similarly, Harvey and Schaefer (2001, p. 254) viewed objective measurement of the stakeholder attributes as "very difficult and also perhaps unnecessary, given that managers will respond to their perceptions of stakeholder influence, not any objective measurement outside this perception." In their test of the Mitchell et al. (1997) framework, Agle et al. (1999) examined power, legitimacy, urgency, and salience from CEOs' perspective. I followed the approach of past research and asked managers about these characteristics. I believe a greater understanding of stakeholder salience can be gained by focusing on individual managers, as in Agle et al. (1999), in addition to examining aggregate views at the organization or industry level of analysis. Similarly, Mitchell et al. often referred to the "stakeholder-manager relationship" (e.g., 1997, pp. 868-9), not the stakeholder-organization or stakeholder-industry relationship. By examining multiple managers with fundamentally different managerial characteristics, that is, their position in the organization's hierarchy and their roles, I sought to build theory related to stakeholder salience.

The procedures for selecting stakeholders in past research usually relied on researcher choice, rather than managerial choice. Many researchers were interested in one subset of an organization's stakeholders. For instance, Ryan and Schneider (2003) limited their focus to institutional investors. Other studies examined multiple stakeholder groups that were provided by the researcher. Harvey and Schaefer (2001) limited their focus to stakeholders associated with a single issue, the environment, what they call "green stakeholders." Agle et al. (1999) gave CEOs a list of generic stakeholders, following Freeman (1984). This allowed the respondents to evaluate stakeholder salience holistically across issues. To ensure that all stakeholders were identified, my methods asked managers themselves to identify their stakeholders. I also allowed them to evaluate stakeholders holistically across issues.

Developing a dynamic understanding of stakeholder salience is an important subject for research (Mitchell et al., 1997). Past research using multiple stakeholders typically examined a relatively short period of time (Agle et al., 1999; Harvey & Schaefer, 2001). Case studies using a more historical approach focused on a limited set of stakeholders on a particular issue. For instance, Winn and Keller (2001) examined the evolution of power, legitimacy, and urgency for environmental groups and fishing fleets, and Jeurissen (2004) recounted how powerful and legitimate Dutch financial institutions became urgent for IHC-Caland regarding its operations in Burma. This study seeks to extend this historical approach to examine changes in power, legitimacy, and urgency from the individual manager's perspective over several years in organizations that undergo dramatic changes in size. In particular, this case study investigates the life course of the committees that organize large-scale sporting events. These organizations form, grow rapidly, and then disband shortly after the event.

Method

This study used both the *Comité Organisateur des Jeux de la Francophonie* (Games of La Francophonie Organizing Committee; hereafter COJF) and the Pan American Games Host Society (PAGS) as its research settings. Chapter 1 provides details as to these research settings, as well as to the data collection and general data analysis techniques. The following provides specific details as to the data analysis procedures related to the stakeholder environment.

Each identified stakeholder was rated in terms of perceived power, legitimacy, or urgency. These ratings were determined based on Mitchell et al.'s (1997) definitions (see Appendix C). Given my interest in changes in these attributes over time, the attributes were coded as present, varying or absent. An example is the COJF Co-President's discussion of the federal government:

> It is the federal government that receives the mandate to hold the Games, not the city that obtains it from the international committee… The different levels of government invested a lot in terms of human and financial resources, according to their respective responsibilities… The national groups were more important than the international groups for the success of the Games [with the federal government being first]… In the beginning, with the federal government, it was the agreement of contribution (the mandate given to the COJF, the negotiation of financial contributions, the financing of the COJF's operations), which was hard and long. These were difficulties that took up a lot of time for the Co-Presidents, the Executive Director and the Board of Directors.

The federal government stakeholder was coded as having power, legitimacy, and urgency, and therefore was a definitive stakeholder in the Mitchell et al. (1997) typology. I created a variable called *number of attributes* coded as ranging from one to three; for example, the federal government would receive a three from the COJF Co-President.

I also noted any changes in stakeholder types. An example of this comes from the Chair of Volunteers, a middle manager of PAGS:

> The community was our biggest stakeholder because we needed we thought 15,000; that's a lot of volunteers… Then we did an updated needs assessment 18 months out and it came out at 20,000 so it was like 'AAARGH!' and so we had to do a second push.

The community was coded as having power and legitimacy (dominant) but then gained urgency and became definitive. For every interviewee-stakeholder dyad, these changes only occurred once in a short period of time. For these, I measured the number of attributes as the average of the two stakeholder types. For example, a stakeholder that was coded as definitive and dominant was given a score of 2.5.

Interviewees were also asked explicitly to rank stakeholders in order of importance. I created a variable called *salience rank* starting with 1 for the most important stakeholder mentioned. Ties were permitted and scored as the average of the ranks. For example, two stakeholders that were tied for second would receive a 2.5 rank.

To test hypotheses linking hierarchy, number of stakeholders identified, number of perceived attributes, and salience rank (Agle et al., 1999; Mitchell et al., 1997), I used correlation and moderated regression analyses using the SPSS statistical software program. For the former, I used a Spearman rank-order correlation as some of the variables are ordinal (as opposed to interval or ratio—or scale) in nature. For the latter, I centered the main effects of number of attributes and hierarchical level to reduce multicollinearity, which can be introduced when doing a regression analysis with an interaction term (Aiken & West, 1991). Centering the variables refers to subtracting the sample mean from the raw score, which is suggested for regression analyses using nominal and ordinal data when the variables relate to different scales. Reducing multicollinearity refers to decreasing the possibility that two supposedly independent, separate variables are found to be correlated. An interaction term (e.g., "XZ") refers, in this case, to a regression equation where a variable (e.g., "Z") is hypothesized to moderate a given relationship between two other variables (e.g., the relationship of "X" to "Y").

In order to execute the regression using SPSS, I first centered the number of attributes (X) and the hierarchical level (Z) variables. Next, I executed a regression analysis of these two variables for salience rank (Y), without an interaction term (step 1). This resulted in a determination of the raw score partial regression coefficients (*B*), the standard error for *B* (*SE B*), the standardized partial regression coefficient (β), and the coefficient of multiple determination (R^2), which is the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that is shared between the weighted combination of independent variables. Then I multiplied the centered number of attributes and hierarchical variables to form an interaction term. I then executed a second regression analysis of the centered number of attributes, centered hierarchical level, and the interaction term again for salience rank (step 2). This resulted in new *B*, *SE B*, β, and R^2. I also computed the difference between the two R^2. The procedure for plotting the interaction follows the procedure detailed in Aiken and West (1991, p. 12-15). I plotted the interaction of the number of attributes versus salience rank for values of hierarchical level (Z) one standard deviation above the mean, at the mean, and one standard deviation below the mean, knowing that the standard deviation was 0.6901.

Inter-interviewee analysis proceeded as follows. First, the classification tables were examined and consolidated. Second, differences in tables among managers were noted. I created tables to count the number of stable stakeholder types and how the others changed. Finally, emerging issues were recorded and discussed.

Results

I first present an overview of the identified stakeholders, followed by the findings related to Mitchell et al.'s (1997) typology and the managers' own rankings. Tables 2-1 and 2-2 list the stakeholder groups identified by each manager. Overall, the two settings' interviewees identified highly similar stakeholder groups, as depicted in the left hand columns of Tables 2-1 and 2-2. The major difference was the identification of international governments by COJF interviewees. The *Jeux de la Francophonie* were created by and are held under the auspices of the CONFEJES, an international political entity. In contrast, the Pan American Games were created by the International Olympic Committee as a regional event to prepare Olympic athletes from North and South Americas. Therefore, the *Jeux de la Francophonie* had an additional stakeholder group, the international governments.

Consistent with Freeman (1984), I also found that the interviewees' role and position in the organizational structure affected their stakeholder identification. Top managers typically provided the largest number of stakeholders, a finding supported by a correlation between hierarchical level and number of stakeholders ($r = -.69, p < .01, N = 22$). Thus, I suggest that managerial characteristics, which were proposed to moderate the attribute-salience relationship (Agle et al., 1999), also may have a direct effect on stakeholder identification. Moreover, I found that people who worked closely together tended to identify similar stakeholders, and that this could cut across

TABLE 2-1

Perceived Stakeholder Salience Rankings, Attributes, and Power Categories for Jeux de la Francophonie Interviewees

Level	Top						Middle						Lower		
Stakeholder	Co-President			Executive Director			Adjunct Director General, Corporate Services			Director of Communications, Media Relations			Assistant Adjunct Director General, Sports		
Groups	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP
Organizing Committee	2	P, L, U	2	2	P, L, U	1	1.5	P, L, U	1	1	P, L, U	1			
Canadian Governments	1	P, L, U	1	1	P, L, U	3	5	P, L, U	3	2	P, L, U	1	3.5	P, L, U	2
Parent Sport Organization	7	P, L P	1	8	P, L P	2				7	P None	0	3.5	P, L, U	2
National Sports Organizations													1.5	P, L, U	1
International Sports Federations	6	P, L	1	4	P, L P	1	3.5	P, L L	1				1.5	P, L, U	2
Community	3	P, L, U	1	3	P, L, U P,L	1	3.5	P, L, U	1	6	P, L, U	1	5	P, L P	1
Media	5	P, L	1	7	L	1	6	P, L	1	3	P, L, U P, L	1			
International Delegations				6	P, L, U L, U	1				5	P, L, U P, L	1			
International Governments	4	P, L, U P, L	1	5	P, L, U P	2	1.5	P, L, U P	1	4	P, L, U P, L	1		?	

Notes. R = Rank; NP = number of power types; P = Power; L = Legitimacy; U = Urgency. Cells with two lines: range of stakeholder attributes.

TABLE 2-2

Perceived Stakeholder Salience Rankings, Attributes, and Power Categories for Pan American Games Interviewees

Level	Top											
	Chairman			President-CEO			COO			Chair CPM		
Stakeholder Groups	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP
Organizing Committee	1.5	P, L, U	2	1	P, L, U	2	1	P, L, U	2	1	P, L, U	1
Canadian Governments	3	P, L, U	1	2.5	P, L, U P, L	2	2	P, L, U P, L	2			
Parent Sport Organization	4.5	P, L, U P, L	1	5	P, L, U P	1	5.5	P, L, U P	1			
National Sports Organizations	4.5	P, L, U	1	5	P, L, U P, L	2	3.5	P, L, U P, L	1			
International Sports Federations							7.5	P	1			
Community	1.5	P, L, U P, L	2	2.5	P, L, U P, L	2	3.5	P, L, U P, L	2	2.5	P, L, U P, L	1
Media				7	P, L, U P	1	5.5	P, L, U P	1	2.5	P, L, U P, L	1
International Delegations				5	P, L, U P	2	7.5	P, L, U P, L	1			

Notes. R = Rank; NP is the number of power types. Stakeholder Attributes: P = Power; L = Legitimacy; U = Urgency. Cells with two lines indicate a change in the stakeholder's attributes.

TABLE 2-2 (cont'd)

Level	Middle											
	Chair Games Operations			Chair Marketing			Chair Sports			Chair Volunteers		
Stakeholder Groups	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP
Organizing Committee	1	P, L, U	1	3	P, L, U	1	1.5	P, L, U	1	2	P, L, U	1
Canadian Governments	2	P, L, U P	1	2	P, L, U	2				4	P, L	1
Parent Sport Organization				5	P, L, U P, L	1	4.5	P, L, U P	2			
National Sports Organizations	4.5	P, L, U P	1	5	P, L, U P, L	1	1.5	P, L, U	2			
International Sports Federations	4.5	P, L, U P	1				4.5	P, L, U P	1			
Community	3	P, L, U P, L	1	1	P, L, U	2				1	P, L, U P	1
Media				6	P, L, U P	1				3	P, L, U P, L	1
International Delegations				5	P, L, U P, L	2	3	P, L, U P, L	2			

TABLE 2-2 (cont'd)

Level	Middle											
	Senior VP			VP CPM			VP Games Operations			VP Sport		
Stakeholder Groups	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP
Organizing Committee	1.5	P, L, U	2	1	P, L, U	1	1	P, L, U	2	1	P, L, U	1
Canadian Governments	1.5	P, L, U P, U	2	5.5	P, L, U P, L	1	3	P, L, U P	2			
Parent Sport Organization	4.5	P, L, U P	1	5.5	P, L, U P, L	2						
National Sports Organizations	4.5	P, L, U P, L	1	5.5	P, L, U P, L	2	2	P, L, U P, L	2	2	P, L, U	2
International Sports Federations										3	P, L, U P	2
Community	4.5	P, L, U P	1	5.5	P, L, U P, L	1				5.5	P, L P	1
Media	4.5	P, L, U P	1	5.5	P, L, U	1				5.5	P, L P	1
International Delegations				5.5	P, L, U P, L	1				4	P, L, U P	3

TABLE 2-2 (cont'd)

Level	Lower														
Stakeholder Groups	Vteam Leader 1			Vteam Leader 2			Co-Chair Volunteers Recruitment & Placement			Manager Sport Operations			Manager Volunteers		
	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP	R	Attributes	NP
Organizing Committee	1	P, L, U P, U	1	1	P, L, U P, U	1	1	P, L, U	2	1	P, L, U	2	1	P, L, U P, U	2
Canadian Governments	2	P, L, U P, L	1	2	P, L, U P, L	1	3	P, L, U P	2				5	P, L	1
Parent Sport Organization															
National Sports Organizations													2	P, L, U P	2
International Sports Federations															
Community							2	P, L, U	2	2	P, L, U P, L	1	4	P, L, U P, L	1
Media							4	P, L, U P, L	1	3	P, L, U P	1	3	P, L	2
International Delegations															

hierarchical levels (e.g., the Executive Director and the Director of Communications, media sector, in the COJF had similar stakeholder lists).

Mitchell et al. Typology

I next present the findings for managerial perceptions of the stakeholder types. I summarized the information from the individual managers in Tables 2-1 and 2-2 by counting the number of different stakeholder types for each case. Because many perceived stakeholder types changed, I used a matrix to indicate which ones changed. I can present this in two dimensions because no stakeholder changed more than once.

Table 2-3 summarizes the stakeholder types among COJF interviewee-stakeholder dyads. The main diagonal counts the stable dyads; the off-diagonal counts the changing dyads. The bottom row of the table presents the weighted total for each type, in which stable types are fully weighted and changing types are weighted by 0.5 for each type. In total, there were 33 stakeholder-manager relationships. Fourteen of the 33 (42%) perceived stakeholder types changed over the COJF's life, while 19 (56%) remained stable. There was a definitive stakeholder type relationship—one having all three attributes—for 23 of the 33 dyads (70%) at some point during the life course of the COJF. One noteworthy finding is the large number of zeroes on the table (27 of 36 cells, or 75%). As implied above, definitive types had the highest weighted total (19). This was followed by dominant (8), dormant (3.5), discretionary (1.5), with dependent and non-stakeholder tied (0.5). Two stakeholder types were not observed: dangerous and demanding—both of which have urgency as an attribute. Considering the three Mitchell et al. attributes in the observed stakeholder types, urgency was more likely to be absent (30%) than power (3%) or legitimacy (3%). Of the 14 dyads for which a stakeholder type changed, only two changed more than one attribute, and in both cases the change was from definitive to dormant.

Table 2-4 summarizes the stakeholder types among PAGS interviewee-stakeholder dyads. In total, there were 82 stakeholder-manager relationships. Stakeholder types changed for 56 (68%) of these, while 26 (32%) remained stable. There was a definitive stakeholder relationship for 75 of the 82 dyads (91%) at some point during PAGS' life course. Again, there was a large number of zeroes on the table (29 of 36 cells, or 81%). Definitive stakeholder types had the highest weighted total (49), followed by dominant (18.5), dormant (12.5), and dangerous (2); all of these types had power as an attribute. Four stakeholder types were not observed: dependent, discretionary, demanding, and non-stakeholders—types that did not include power. Considering the three Mitchell et al. attributes in the observed stakeholder types, urgency was more likely to be absent (7%) than power (0%) or legitimacy (1%). Twenty-one stakeholders changed more than one attribute, and, like the COJF, in all cases the change was from definitive to dormant.

Overall, there were a limited number of stakeholder types. Most stakeholders were perceived as being powerful throughout the life course of each organizing committee. Moreover, most were perceived as being definitive at some point. Furthermore, most stakeholders tended to be dormant, dominant, or definitive, indicating that power was most common, followed by legitimacy, and then urgency.

TABLE 2-3

Summary of Stakeholder Types Perceived by Managers in the Jeux de la Francophonie Case

	Definitive (P, L, U)	**Dominant (P, L)**	**Dependent (L, U)**	**Dangerous (P, U)**	**Dormant (P)**	**Discretionary (L)**	**Demanding (U)**	**Non-stakeholder (None)**
Definitive	15 (45.5%)							
Dominant	5 (15.2%)	3 (9.1%)						
Dependent	1 (3.0%)	0	0					
Dangerous	0	0	0	0				
Dormant	2 (6.1%)	4 (12.1%)	0	0	0			
Discretionary	0	1 (3.0%)	0	0	0	1 (3.0%)		
Demanding	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Non-stakeholder	0	0	0	0	1 (3.0%)	0	0	0
Weighted Total for Type	19 (57.6%)	8 (24.2%)	0.5 (1.5%)	0	3.5 (10.6%)	1.5 (4.5%)	0	0.5 (1.5%)

Notes. P = Power; L = Legitimacy; U=Urgency. Total number of interviewee-stakeholder dyads = 33. Entries in main diagonal are the number stakeholder types identified by managers that were stable. Entries off the main diagonal are the number stakeholder types that changed between the two types. Weighted Total for Type: Stable types on main diagonal receive full weight; counts of changing types off main diagonal are divided by two before adding to each type's total. The formula is: weighted total for type in row or column $i = x_{ii} + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma_{c,r} (x_{ic} + x_{ri})$. This is not a sum of each column.

TABLE 2-4

Summary of Stakeholder Types Perceived by Managers in the Pan American Games Case

	Definitive (P, L, U)	Dominant (P, L)	Dependent (L, U)	Dangerous (P, U)	Dormant (P)	Discretionary (L)	Demanding (U)	Non-stakeholder (None)
Definitive	22 (26.8%)							
Dominant	29 (35.4%)	3 (3.7%)						
Dependent	0	0	0					
Dangerous	4 (4.9%)	0	0	0				
Dormant	21 (25.6%)	2 (2.4%)	0	0	1 (1.2%)			
Discretionary	0	0	0	0	0	0		
Demanding	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Non-stakeholder	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Weighted Total for Type	49 (59.8%)	18.5 (22.6%)	0	2 (2.4%)	12.5 (15.2%)	0	0	0

Notes. P = Power; L = Legitimacy; U=Urgency. Total number of interviewee-stakeholder dyads = 82. Entries in main diagonal are the number stakeholder types identified by managers that were stable. Entries off the main diagonal are the number stakeholder types that changed between the two types. Weighted Total for Type: Stable types on main diagonal receive full weight; counts of changing types off main diagonal are divided by two before adding to each type's total. The formula is: weighted total for type in row or column $i = x_{ii} + \frac{1}{2} \Sigma_{c,r} (x_{ic} + x_{ri})$. This is not a sum of each column.

Stakeholder Prioritization

Interviewees' stated salience rankings are also presented in Tables 2-1 and 2-2. I tested the central proposition of Mitchell et al. (1997) first by computing the Spearman correlations between number of perceived attributes and salience rank. The significant correlation (r = -.61, $p < .01$, N = 115) provides support to the proposition. I found that this relationship held in both cases and that the higher the level of the interviewee, the stronger the correlation (Top level r = -.77; middle level r = -.56; lower level r = -.51).

Table 2-5 presents the results of the moderated regression used to test if hierarchical level influences the effect of number of attributes on salience. The number of attributes (centered) was negative and significant (*B* = -2.037, *SE* = .245, $p < .001$) as expected by the theory and consistent with the correlation above. Hierarchy (centered) was also negative and significant (*B* = -2.386, *SE* = .901, $p < .01$), reflecting the finding that top level managers identify more stakeholders. The coefficient on the interaction term is positive and significant (*B* = .727, *SE* = .363, $p < .05$), indicating that more attributes had a greater effect on salience for those managers lower in the hierarchy. Thus, I find support for the moderating role of hierarchy. Figure 2-1 shows the interaction plot and indicates that there is a negative relationship between number of attributes and salience for values above, at, and below the mean of hierarchical level. The figure illustrates how the relationship becomes more negative as one goes further below the mean.

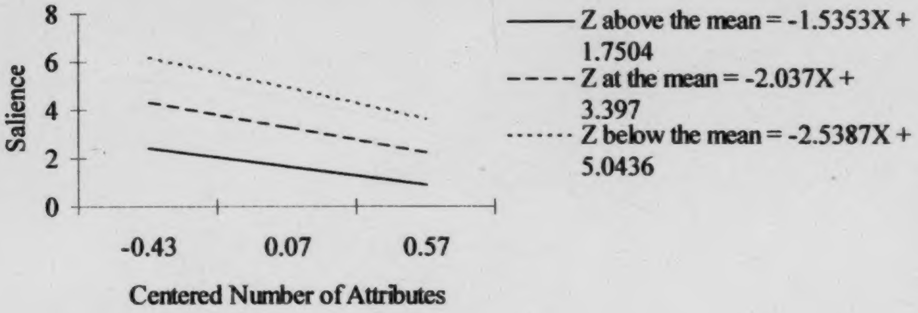
TABLE 2-5

Moderated Regression for Salience Rank

	Step 1			*Step 2*		
Variables	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β
Intercept	3.425***	.127		3.397***	.126	
Centered Number of Attributes	-2.123***	.224	-.609	-2.037***	.245	-.585
Centered Hierarchical Level	-.618**	.186	-.233	-2.386**	.901	-.897
Interaction				.727*	.363	.677
R^2	.456			.475		
ΔR^2				.019*		

Notes. N = 115; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

FIGURE 2-1. *Plot of the Interaction of Number of Attributes to Salience for Values Above, At, and Below the Mean of Hierarchical Level.*



I next compared the salience ranks with the perceptions of stakeholder attributes to seek insights that would advance theory. There were relatively few ties in the rankings, but in many cases stakeholders were of the same type. For example, both the COJF Co-President and the Executive Director ranked the following definitive stakeholders in this order: Canadian governments, the COJF, and the community. However, as described by the Co-President, the Canadian federal government was the most important in terms of time, energy and resources since without it, the COJF would not have existed nor would it have been able to host the *Jeux de la Francophonie*:

> The different government levels invested a lot in terms of human and financial resources, according to their respective responsibilities; but they did a lot to make the Games successful... In the *Jeux de la Francophonie*, it's the State government (i.e., country, province, etc.) who receives the mandate to hold the Games, not the city who obtains it from the international committee; it's the Canadian government. There is an agreement between the international committee and the Canadian government that the Games will be held in Canada. Then it is up to the Canadian government—or whichever government—to identify the location(s) where the Games will be held.

I inferred that the Government of Canada had greater power amongst a set of powerful governments. To extend my inference, I performed a *post hoc* analysis on the Co-President's interview that examined different types of power using the following definitions from Mitchell et al. (1997; cf. Ryan & Schneider, 2003). Coercive power is the use of violence, force, threat, sabotage, enforcement, courts, and/or legislation (Agle et al., 1999; Etzioni, 1964). Utilitarian power is the ability to dispense or withhold material or financial resources (including goals/services) (Etzioni, 1964). Normative power is the use of the media to publicize a displeasure, esteem, prestige, image, and/or social symbols (Agle et al., 1999; Etzioni, 1964).

Table 2-6 shows how this more refined classification provided a more finely grained distinction among stakeholders. Most relevant to improving salience analysis, stakeholders that had power based on more than one type were more salient. From the analysis of the Co-President of the COJF, the Canadian federal government had normative power, as rights holder of the Games and host country, and utilitarian power, as a key provider of financial and human resources. Among those stakeholders with power from only one category, those with utilitarian power were more salient than those with normative power. I then examined these inferences on all the interviewees. Tables 2-1 and 2-2 also list the number of power categories each stakeholder was perceived as having. The general trends found for the COJF Co-President were confirmed. Having more than one type of power increased the stakeholder's salience level ($r = -.48$, $p < .01$, $N = 115$). Moreover, utilitarian power generally was more "powerful" than normative which, in turn, was more "powerful" than coercive power.

TABLE 2-6

Stakeholder Salience Order for COJF Co-President with Differentiation of Power

Stakeholder Order	**Stakeholder**	**Power**	
		Category	Example
1	Canadian Governments	Normative	Laws Protocol Holds rights to host games
		Utilitarian	Monetary Human resources Material resources
2	COJF	Utilitarian	Human resources
3	Community	Utilitarian	Human resources Material resources
4	International Governments	Normative	Athlete presence
5	Media	Normative	Image production
6	International Sport Federations	Normative	Sports rules/regulations
7	CIJF	Normative	Rules/regulations

Another insight came from examining the PAGS table in depth. There were four stakeholders whose type varied between definitive (all attributes) and dangerous (powerful and urgent). For each one, the interviewee ranked that stakeholder as more salient than stakeholders whose type varied between definitive and dominant (powerful and legitimate). I infer that urgency may have greater impact on perceived stakeholder salience than legitimacy.

A closer look at managerial stakeholder ordering indicates that prioritization is related to hierarchical level and (divisional) role. More precisely, stakeholder prioritization depended on the interviewee's role, which was first influenced by whether the individual was a volunteer or a paid staff member. That is, volunteers tended to be focused more on external stakeholders while staff were more focused on day-to-day operations—internal issues of the organizing committee. Stakeholder prioritization also depended on the individual's divisional role within the organizing committee. That is, divisions such as Volunteers, Marketing, and Communications, Promotions and Media were highly dependent on other divisions for information but, by their nature, had to service external stakeholders; divisions such as Games Operations depended on internal and external information (e.g., from other divisions and sport organizations) but serviced internal stakeholders; and divisions such as Sport were dependent on internal and external stakeholders for both preparation and service. Combining an interviewee's divisional role and hierarchical level allows us to explain differences in stakeholder prioritization. In sum, the manager's role is a fundamental managerial characteristic that has an important effect on stakeholder salience.

Discussion

The theory of stakeholder salience developed by Mitchell et al. (1997) has been widely cited, but there has been relatively limited empirical research investigating whether "present descriptions of stakeholder attributes [are] adequate … when examining real stakeholder-manager relationships" (Mitchell et al., 1997, p. 881). The purpose of this paper was to examine how managers themselves identify and prioritize stakeholders. I used a comparative case study of two large-scale sporting event organizing committees, focusing on 22 interviews with managers, to uncover "models of interrelationships among the variables identified … that reveal more subtle, but perhaps more basic, systematics" (Mitchell et al. 1997, p. 881; cf.

Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2003). I first discuss how this study contributes to the advancement of the theory of stakeholder identification and salience. I then discuss the limitations of this study. In each section I make suggestions for future research.

Advancing the Theory of Stakeholder Identification and Salience

A central proposition of Mitchell et al. (1997) was that the number of stakeholder attributes affects salience. My statistical analysis adds a second piece of empirical support for this, especially because I used different methods, namely, interview data and salience rankings, than the first study by Agle et al. (1999), who used surveys and Likert scales. I offer several suggestions for a better explanation of salience. As was done by Ryan and Schneider (2003), I explicitly differentiated power into the three types suggested by Mitchell et al. (1997) and showed statistically that the more different types of power a stakeholder possessed, the more salient it was. This line of reasoning could be extended to legitimacy and urgency. For instance, stakeholder salience may differ based on the types of legitimacy, such as regulative, normative, or cognitive (Scott, 1995; Suchman, 1995). I also observed that utilitarian power was more powerful than normative or coercive power. Future research could investigate whether or not different types within a particular attribute have a greater impact on salience.

The relative importance of different stakeholder attributes in the theory could also be a subject for future research. Agle et al. (1999, p. 520) suggested that "urgency is the best predictor of salience." This study suggests that power is primary, followed by urgency and legitimacy. Given that power was rarely absent, I believe power is usually necessary for stakeholders to be identified by managers. I also found a COJF manager who ranked a definitive/dominant stakeholder as more salient than a definitive/dependent one, suggesting that power has a bigger impact on salience than urgency. In support of urgency being second, I did find four PAGS managers ranked definitive/dangerous stakeholders as more salient than definitive/dominant stakeholders. Managerial characteristics should also play an important role in how managers identify and prioritize stakeholders (Mitchell et al., 1997). Agle et al. (1999) did not find that CEO values moderated the relationship between stakeholder attributes and salience.

In contrast, I found that the manager's role and hierarchal level were important in many ways. First, I found that hierarchal level moderated the relationship between stakeholder attributes and salience. Next, hierarchal level had a direct positive effect on the number of stakeholders identified. Top managers did not necessarily identify all stakeholders but they identified more than middle or lower level managers. My qualitative analysis indicated that the specific stakeholders identified depended on the manager's position in the hierarchy and his/her divisional role (cf. Freeman, 1984). Thus, the findings indicate that a time-constrained manager or researcher is likely to obtain a wider range of stakeholders from top managers but may not identify all critical stakeholders, as stakeholder identification varied over time, issue and manager. I suggest further theoretical development concerning managerial characteristics in the theory and consideration of other managerial characteristics in empirical study.

This study also informs the dynamic nature of stakeholder attributes. The attributes of many stakeholders were perceived as not changing (32% in PAGS and 56% in COJF). I also found most stakeholders moved among a limited set of types, most notably, definitive, dominant, and dormant, all of which have power as an attribute. Also, I found that 85% of the stakeholder-manager relationships were definitive for some time during the life of the organizing committees. I compare the findings to the only other paper that systematically examined the attributes of a wide range of stakeholders. Harvey and Schaefer (2001) found three definitive stakeholders: the government through legislation, the Environmental Agency, and industry regulators. Two stakeholders were dominant: shareholders and owners. Customers and the public were described as "highly legitimate, and indirectly rather powerful" (p. 253). They could be classified as either dominant or discretionary, depending on whether one decided that indirect power meant it was present or absent. Employees were viewed as legitimate but had uncertain power and urgency. So in their study, only definitive, dominant, and discretionary types existed. Among non-definitive stakeholders, I observed relatively few cases of urgency. One explanation is that urgency tends to come after power or legitimacy for most stakeholders, especially generic, primary stakeholders like customers and owners (Clarkson, 1995; Freeman, 1984). It is possible that only activist groups possess urgency alone (cf. Coombs, 1998).

Based on this, I offer several suggestions for future research. One is to examine the conditions that affect the range of stakeholder types perceived by managers. Another is to determine if there are typical trajectories over time for different stakeholder types; for instance, activists may move from urgently demanding to powerfully dangerous and perhaps even to legitimately definitive (Driscoll & Crombie, 2001; Winn & Keller, 2001). Researchers also might choose to deepen their research on particular types. Such research would allow managers to be more proactive in dealing with their stakeholders as they would know in advance the likeliest ways the stakeholder would behave and be prepared for these behaviours.

Limitations

There are limitations to this study that warrant consideration in future research. First, the case studies focused on one type of organization, large-scale sporting event organizing committees, which have a fixed lifespan and growth pattern. The results may most literally apply to these types of organizations, especially those in Canada. Nevertheless, these organizations share many common features with others. Most importantly, the organizing committee has to manage a variety of stakeholders, and its success depends on satisfying its stakeholders. Moreover, it has multiple levels of hierarchy. Thus, this study may be analytically generalizable to stakeholder theory, meaning that a theory "that led to a case study in the first place is the same theory that will help to identify other cases to which the results are generalizable" (Yin, 2003, p. 37). I showed that some of my results parallel studies of other organizations (cf. Agle et al., 1999; Harvey & Schaefer, 2001; Ryan & Schneider, 2004). Future research can compare my propositions concerning hierarchy and power to other types of organizations.

Second, the role of time deserves greater consideration. My analysis retrospectively asked managers if stakeholder attributes changed over time and I coded this as varying if they did. Another limitation is that I did not measure salience at multiple points of time. Tracking managers' stakeholder salience over time would be a better but more resource intensive method for examining this issue. A related limitation is that urgency may be harder to assess or recall using retrospective interviews.

Finally, although I used the types of power listed by Mitchell et al. (1997) and used by Ryan and Schneider (2003), future research could use alternate conceptualizations of power. For instance, Welcomer, Cochran, Rands and Haggerty (2003) used primacy, substitutability, positive discretion, and negative discretion in their study of the Maine forestry industry. Similarly, Harvey and Schaefer (2001) reported that among three definitive stakeholders, the government through legislation was more salient than either the Environmental Agency or industry regulators. The authors based their statements on institutional, economic, and legitimate power. Overall, there seems to be agreement among authors about the importance of power. Future research could compare the efficacy of different types of power in empirical research.

Conclusion

The purpose of this paper was to examine several central components of the popular theory of stakeholder identification and prioritization developed by Mitchell et al. (1997). I used a multi-method, comparative case study of two large-scale sporting event organizing committees, with a particular focus on interviews with managers. I supported the positive relationship between number of attributes and salience. More importantly, the findings highlighted the importance of hierarchical level and divisional role as having direct and moderating effects on stakeholder identification and salience. The findings also indicate that Mitchell et al.'s (1997) stakeholder types may be more limited in practice than in theory. Stakeholders were more likely to fall in the dormant-dominant-definitive stakeholder pathway. Consequently, power and legitimacy were more likely to be present. The analysis suggests that power has the most important effect on salience, followed by urgency and legitimacy. Based on this study, I believe there are many intriguing ways to advance the theory of stakeholder identification and salience.

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CHAPTER 3

Paper 2

Issues and Strategies in the Staging of a Sporting Event

Over the last thirty years, large-scale sporting events have become increasingly popular vehicles for achieving political, cultural, and economic benefits for the hosting region. Political benefits can include increased international recognition of the host region and the propagation of certain political values held by the government and/or the local population. Cultural benefits can include strengthening local traditions and values. Economic benefits can include increased expenditures and employment within the region (cf. Chappelet, 2000; Ritchie, 1984; Roche, 2000; Whitson & Macintosh, 1996).

Organizing committees spend much time and money building and maintaining relationships with various partners in order to acquire the necessary resources to host an event effectively. These "partners" or stakeholders are any group or person who can affect or who is affected by an organization's actions (Freeman, 1984). Groups and individuals included in this definition comprise both the formally recognized or "official" actors as well as the informal or often overlooked constituents such as special interest groups and local residents. Other stakeholders include the organizing committee's paid staff and volunteers; the various levels of government; the residents, sponsors, businesses, schools, and community groups comprising the community; the international, continental, national, and provincial sport organizations; the print, radio, television, and internet media; and the athletes, coaches, Very Important Persons (VIPs), officials, and support staff comprising the delegations.

Whether or not an organizing committee's stakeholders accept an organizational action can positively or negatively affect the organization's present and future actions, and therefore impact the event's success, while at the same time satisfying their own needs and those of other stakeholders. Not only should the various stakeholders be considered in examining organizing committee management but so too should the dynamic or temporal nature of the organization. Stakeholders' expectations, needs, and interests may vary over time. Because of the organizing committee's nature—temporary organizations with a fixed and pre-determined life span—the different aspects of event management will be constantly changing, and any research related to events must take this temporal dimension into account.

While large-scale sporting events have captivated the world, little is known about how they operate. Most books and articles on such events are intended for popular rather than academic consumption (e.g., Jennings, 2000; McGeoch, 1994; Yarbrough, 2000). The general public will know about financial troubles in Montreal (1976), transportation and security issues in Atlanta (1996), and logistical/construction issues in Athens (2004). However, a systematic determination of the types of issues dealt with and the strategies used to manage these issues has yet to be completed. Research articles analysing sport events tend to focus on tourism, marketing, sponsorship, economic impact, or political/municipal impacts (e.g., Brown, 2002;

Crompton, 1995; Whitson & Macintosh, 1996; Yoon, Spencer, Holecek & Kim, 2000).

Therefore, the purpose of this paper was to explore an organizing committee's issues and strategies over time. This study arguably provides sport event managers with a basic operational framework which is lacking in the literature. First, the theoretical concepts relating to issues and strategies will be considered. Next, specific data analysis procedures will be presented. The results will then be discussed, followed by concluding remarks.

Theoretical Framework

While this study is exploratory in nature, literature exists that provides a framework for the examination of the types of issues an organizing committee faces and the strategies it uses to address these issues. As mentioned above, time (or evolution) and stakeholders must be included when examining an organizing committee's issues and strategic management. How time and stakeholders are linked to issues and strategies is described below in relation to the event management literature.

Organizational Evolution and Issues

A cursory review of the existing event management literature in relation to organizing committee issues offers the experiences of the writer or the topic under discussion in a chronological manner using day, month, and/or year concepts to describe time in organizing committees, and places actions or issues according to these time descriptors (cf. Burbank, Andranovich & Heying, 2001; King, 1991; McGeoch, 1994; Yarbrough, 2000). However, a few books and articles have provided additional descriptors of an organizing committee's temporal evolution. The typical descriptions, as exemplified by McGeoch (1994), are to mention a bid committee and its transformation into an organizing committee. Even academic writers have used variations of this simple chronological description. For example, Chappelet (1991; 2000) explained that Olympic Games are hosted by the organizing committee of the winning city's bid. The only specification was that organizing committees must be formed within six months of the bid being successful and must be terminated within a year of the end of the Games, as stated by the International Olympic Committee's regulations (Chappelet, 1991).

There are a few evolution models presented in the event management literature. Burbank et al. (2001) and Yarbrough (2000) have provided more specificity by mentioning—albeit in passing—planning, implementation of plans/pre-games activities, games time, and post-games modes. As well, Hall (1992) suggested four organizing committee phases: planning, organizing, leading, and controlling. This is, in effect, a project management approach to event management (cf. Mingus, 2002). Taking a different approach, Getz (1993) suggested that the stages of an organizing committee are as follows: origin, informal organization, emergence of leadership, formal organization, and professionalism. Getz also argued that the community support, size of the organization and resources increase as the organizing committee moves through these stages. However, exceptions to this claim are evident if one considers the typically varying support residents provide to organizing committees. As can also be seen, there is no consensus on whether an organizing committee goes through stages, phases or modes. Attention will be paid to this aspect during data analysis.

Although listing all issues an organizing committee deals with was not the main purpose of those publications, there are a variety of issues faced by the organizing committee mentioned. However, common issues can be found: power/politics, planning/organizing, financial, sponsorship, ticket sales, human resources, leadership, facilities, cultural events, tourism, weather, media, public support, relationship and/or negotiations, legacy, and local infrastructure (cf. Burbank et al., 2001; King, 1991; Yarbrough, 2000). In order to simplify such a list, Ratnatunga and Muthaly (2000) provided three categories of issues in their study of the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games so as to provide considerations for the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games. First, logistical issues included traffic, street closures, garbage collection and the like during the Games. Second, business issues included forecasting, strategic planning, branding, marketing, cost control, and equipment leasing. Third, infrastructure issues included licensing, permits, and employee management. These categories will be considered when presenting issues dealt with by the organizing committee.

Organizational Strategies

Knowing and managing stakeholders is an essential part of event management. If stakeholders have different needs in relation to an event, then strategies must consider the various stakeholder groups to deal with and their needs. Within the event management literature, very little description exists as to the types of strategies used to deal with issues and related stakeholders. Typically (cf. McGeoch, 1994; Yarbrough, 2000), descriptions are of the specific actions and not the type of strategy, as theoretical strategy frameworks suggest. However, King (1991) did provide a statement of a proactive strategic approach for dealing with a threat from an environmental group. King's organizing committee asked the group to do research on the best site and then publicly disclose results. These were the same as the organizing committee's results. Therefore, determining the types of strategies used in event management must be done along with an examination of the issues related to event management.

Method

The Pan American Games and its organizing committee, the Pan American Games Host Society (PAGS), case study was used for this paper, as there was not enough significant information relating to issues and their management within the *Jeux de la Francophonie* study. An overview of the setting, data collection and general data analysis procedures is provided in chapter 1. The following provides details relating to specific aspects of the content analysis related to issues and their management.

Collected data were coded for all references to time (e.g., timeframe, timeline, time, mode, stage, and phase codes). Quotations were then compared to establish a timeline. Data analysis of issues and strategies proceeded as follows: the organizing committee's management of each stakeholder group was determined using the interview transcripts and archival material. Management strategies were also compared to determine patterns.

Archival material and interview transcripts of PAGS and its stakeholders were also compared in order to establish a list of issues relevant to each stakeholder group. As data were analyzed, trends emerged relating to issues and strategies, such as these aspects changing over time. However, issues also changed according to stakeholders and according to the organizing committee member's hierarchical level. The temporal element emerged along with contextual aspects and resources as factors explaining strategic choice. As for issues, stakeholders also emerged as important factors.

Results and Discussion

> As you go along, you'll find things change and you go through different phases and different problems. And actually it's a very interesting process to go from the conceptualization stage to the delivery stage in a cycle of basically five years (PAGS Volunteer).

This quote is just one illustration of how PAGS went through different issues over time. Results related to the organizing committee's issues will be presented according to three trends that emerged during data analysis: issues changing according to time (or an organization's operational modes), issues changing according to stakeholders, and issues changing according to organizing committee members' hierarchical level. Next, strategies are also presented according to trends that emerged during data analysis: contextual factors explaining strategy use (context, resources and time) and strategic approach in relation to stakeholders.

Operational Modes

Examining the interview and archival material data resulted in three trends being observed. Issues depended on time, stakeholder and hierarchical level. First, with regard to time, interviewees described issues in relation to a specific operational mode of the organizing committee. The term mode was chosen over phase and stage as it depicted more accurately the state in which members operated, and it was used more often by members. The term phase was reserved for specific steps within each mode. Three operational modes were identified: planning, implementation and wrap-up mode. The *planning mode* took place during the first half of the organization's life (until about two years before the Games in this case)—this mode also included bidding to host the event. Most plans prepared by the organization fell within this mode, including the bid plan, the business plan, the operational plan and the work packages (or divisional plans). These plans were seen as phases the organizing committee had to follow. Once the bid was won, leadership was established by hiring a Chairman: "the decision to have [him] as the Chair was the first, most critical decision that was made; an exceptionally competent person with great business skills and business acumen" (PAGS Volunteer). "Then you do the business plan. It's very centralized. You're looking at how many people, how many days, where do they live, how do they get there?" (PAGS Staff). PAGS documentation indicated that the business plan should include: organizational structure, terms of reference, key deliverables, major contracts and purchase orders, major assumptions, work packages, budget, human resource requirements, marketing analysis, and the project's timeline.

The organizing committee then moved to the operational plan:

> These plans should outline, by functional area, how the responsibilities will be fulfilled. These plans should provide the following information:
> - What has to be done
> - Who will do it and who has to assist
> - When will it be done
> - Where will it be done
> - How it will be done
>
> This is an extension of the terms of reference but provides more details and must be developed with "one eye" on the budget (PAGS Documentation).

Next, the organizing committee moved to the work packages or divisional plans:

> Each division prepared work packages detailing the work to be completed, exclusions, provisional timelines, major contracts and overall costs. Although many of the projects changed through time, this format formed the base of the cost and project control system. The evolution of the work projects forced divisions to communicate, something that had to that point been missing, to pinpoint potential black holes and to question assumptions (PAGS Documentation).

As can be seen from the previous quotes, there was an increasing degree of specificity in the planning. Plans started at a broad, strategic level but moved over two years, down the hierarchy to more specific, divisional plans. Issues addressed during planning related to organizing (planning, structure), financial issues, politics, relationships, interdependence of divisions, and, to a lesser extent, operations.

About halfway through the life of the organizing committee, "when [the organizing committee] switched from planning to operational mode about 2 years out" (PAGS Volunteer), the organization moved from the planning mode to the *implementation mode*—also referred to as the operational mode:

> As the plans were handed off by the Divisional Team, the Vteam [Venue team] started to increase in its responsibilities, until such time as when the Divisional Teams had completed their generic planning and guidelines and the Vteams started to develop site specific plans. By games time, the Divisional Teams were to be in the background providing limited support, and the Vteams were to deliver the games (PAGS Documentation).

During this mode, issues related to the "venuization" (PAGS Staff) of the plans and the actual running of the Games.

> The management philosophy for games time was to vest responsibility at games time with the volunteers at the venues, i.e., the Vteam… The venue team was led by the Vteam leader and the Sport Chair. In its simplest terms, Sport was responsible for field of play (PAGS Documentation).

In other words, the implementation mode dealt with transferring decision-making and execution power down to the individuals who would run the event and be in charge of the venues and fields of play. Typically, venue teams (or Vteams) had two co-leaders and a representative from each division. Issue types typically arising during this mode logically related to operations, sport, infrastructure, human resources, participation, interdependence, and politics.

The final mode lasted from the day after the Games until the termination of the organizing committee. This *wrap-up mode* was comprised of writing the final report and managing the post-games legacy. The final report

> is the post-mortem and usually summarizes by division:
> - The history and area of responsibility
> - Divisional structure
> - What went right
> - What went wrong
> - What should be done differently
> - Relevant statistics (PAGS Documentation).

At the same time as the final report was written, the post-games legacy was managed, where Games assets were distributed to various stakeholders:

> As asset disposal happens post-games, there is an understandable tendency to deal with it when it happens. This however coincides with staff being terminated and the task falls on a very small group. An asset disposal team should be identified for post-games assignment and can be pulled from a number of divisions (PAGS Documentation).

"Staff and volunteers get to return to their normal lives and bask in the satisfaction of contributing to a very special and significant event" (PAGS Documentation). Therefore, issues dealt with during the wrap-up mode included legacy and, to a lesser extent, operations and human resources.

Such a description of an organizing committee's evolution was inconsistent with the literature as exemplified by Hall's (1992) planning-organizing-leading-controlling phases or Getz's (1993) origin-informal organization-emergence of leadership-formal organization-professionalism stages. More precisely, there was an origin and informal organizational beginning for PAGS with the bid and business plan, but the leadership was found from the beginning and not as a separate stage, as was the need for professionalism. As well, there were planning and organizing (or implementing) functions but the leading and controlling functions were identified within the planning and organizing functions, not as separate functions. Instead, temporal descriptions by PAGS members followed what other event managers have written about Games (e.g., Yarbrough, 2000). Therefore, statements made by organizing committee members challenge and extend the established event management literature by presenting a new description for the temporal aspect of an organizing committee of a large-scale sporting event, a description which is in line with practicing managers' own descriptions.

Organizational Issues

Comparing interview and archival material in order to determine a list of issues highlighted two aspects. First, Ratnatunga and Muthaly's (2000) logistical, business, and infrastructure categories were found to be limited and did not represent the full range of issues PAGS members faced in reality. They lacked specificity: the categories did not encompass the range of issue types presented in the literature or in this study when a list of issues dealt with by the organizing committee was established. Therefore, issues found in the present study allowed for the following categories to be proposed: politics, visibility, financial, organizing, relationships, operations, sport, infrastructure, human resources, media, interdependence, participation, and legacy. These categories are based upon Ratnatunga and Muthaly's categories but are expanded to reflect the various functions and roles of organizing committee members as described by the interviewees. Table 3-1 describes the components of each issue category.

Stakeholder-Specific Issues

Interviewees described issues in relation to specific stakeholders. Table 3-2 provides a summary of the issue categories related to each stakeholder group. The overarching concern for all stakeholder groups was the financial issue. Beyond this issue, other more stakeholder-specific issues were found. Organizing committee

TABLE 3-1

Description of Issue Categories Faced by an Organizing Committee

Issue Category	Specific Issues
Politics	Power & politics, lobbying, government support, inter-city competition, egos, protocol
Visibility	Reputation, image, public/corporate support
Financial	Cost control, budget management, sponsorship, ticket sales, marketing, licensing
Organizing	Planning, decision-making, structure, management activities, team composition, deadlines, effectiveness
Relationships	Negotiation, discussion with stakeholders, managing expectations, building/maintaining relationships, accountability, authority
Operations	Venues/facilities, technology, ceremonies/cultural events, defections, medical, security, contingencies, food, travel, games transportation, accommodations, accreditations, logistics, commissioning & decommissioning
Sport	Delegation size, qualification standards, sanctions, fields of play, officials, readiness, delivery, event quality, resources & equipment, test events, practices, water
Infrastructure	Traffic, streets, existing facilities, city/public transportation, tourism, weather, municipal services (e.g., garbage collection)
Human Resources	Staff/volunteer management & roles, leadership, motivation, teamwork
Media	Media coverage, broadcasting rights
Interdependence	Coordination, communication, divisional & hierarchical linkages, information management
Participation	Involvement, recognition, experience, fun, excitement, ticket availability
Legacy	New facilities, know-how, final report & knowledge transfer, resource management, trade opportunities, pride, benefits, networking

members dealt with issues of responsibility or accountability and authority (who has the right to make the decisions), accessing information and communicating, and being recognized for one's work—whether they were paid for it or not. Canadian governments were more concerned with the return on their investment in various forms: participation in decision-making processes, protocol issues (who sits where, who talks first, etc.), long-term legacy, and being seen as helping this positive initiative (the Games). Municipal and provincial governments were also interested in creating international trade opportunities: "the province passed the first balanced budget in Canada, so certainly the due diligence and the financial prudence of any of the investment groups were looked at with a fine-toothed comb" (Provincial Representative).

TABLE 3-2

Issue Categories by Stakeholder Group

Stakeholder Group	**Issue Categories**
Organizing Committee Staff & Volunteers	Financial, relationships, interdependence, participation
Canadian Governments	Financial, visibility, politics, participation, legacy
Community	Participation, legacy, visibility, sport, financial
Sports Organizations	Sport, financial, operations, legacy, participation, politics
Delegations	Operations, sport, interdependence, participation, financial
Media	Visibility, operations, interdependence, sport, financial

> The city came up with a strategy to try and land some major events. So from about the mid-80s on, there was a process that was a cooperative effort between the city, the province and the Manitoba Sports Federation… I think the mayor of the day and the council felt that Winnipeg was suited to kind of enter that international stage because of the international profile, the long-term economic spin-offs from that, tourism spin-offs, that sort of thing (City Representative).

Community members were concerned with the quality of the event and its accessibility in their support for this initiative. They wanted to participate, have fun, meet new people/businesses, network, and see benefits of some kind for themselves and their community. For example, the Aboriginal community's goal was "to improve [their] relationship between the corporate business community and Winnipeg [so that they] align themselves with the growing Aboriginal population" (Aboriginal Representative). The Aboriginal community also wanted access to

> leadership [to request] their assistance as part of a long-term strategy for the Aboriginal sport community to bid for the [North American Indigenous] Games in 2002, and get trained people, and get Aboriginal youth involved with the host society in order to get them on-the-job training for hosting the Games in 2002 (Aboriginal Representative).

Sports organizations were concerned with all aspects of the field of play and—more so for the international and continental federations—they also expected to be treated as VIPs:

> The issues that usually surround games from a sport federation's [perspective] is how they can get support at the games for things that are important to them, whether it be additional accommodation, more accreditation and getting additional coaches involved, getting equipment moved that's there, looking at the quality of the facilities that they're going to be competing on, those are the things that are most concerning the stakeholders such as the sport federations (Sport Organization Representative).

Participants and the support staff of delegations were concerned with receiving effective and very efficient services—of international quality: "our main perspective was to ensure that our athletes had the best possible experience and the best possible competitive environment to compete in" (Sport Organization and Delegation Representative). Likewise, the media were concerned with the level of services they would have access to in order to get their job done on time. A print media representative stated they needed "excellent access to the Games for all our sports reporters and photographers to all the major events … transportation, and whatever technology [needed] to be able to report directly from the various Games venues."

Organizing Committee Member-Specific Issues

PAGS interviewees described issues according to their hierarchical level and role within the organizing committee. Moving down the hierarchy was like moving across modes. More precisely, top managers dealt with the major issues that are present from the beginning of the organizing committee's life: politics, financial, organizing, relationships, and human resources. Mid-level managers were responsible for a specific division, thereby resulting in differences in the types of issues they dealt with, issues specific to their division. However, financial issues were consistent across divisions, and human resource issues were almost as important. As time progressed, issues became about operations, implementation, and interdependence. Likewise, lower-level managers dealt more with operations, human resources, interdependence, relationships, and financial issues. This is consistent with the desire of top management to push decision-making down the hierarchy to the people who were to lead the actual Games, the Vteams and their volunteers.

> You start with the bid committee, and then you get into the structure and you begin to move along through that process. What you're really moving from is a very centralized core planning group ultimately to a venue model at Games time where you've pushed decision-making, the appropriate decision-making, right down the organization to the lowest possible level (PAGS Staff).

The conscious effort to push decision-making responsibility down to the individuals who were to run the Games ensured a fit between organizational processes, even if the transitions from top to lower-level management may have been difficult: "The difficult dynamic was the slow transition from Divisional-driven process to Vteam-driven games delivery" (PAGS Documentation). The Vteam concept itself was difficult for members to comprehend:

> For some reason this Vteam concept was hard for our board to grasp. Even once we were running, I had a board member ask if we were going ahead with the Vteams. Calgary was right; it was difficult to get buy-in (PAGS Volunteer).

Table 3-3 provides an overview of the issue categories dealt with according to organizing committee member.

Interviewees were aware of the differences in issues management between top and lower-level management:

> Lots of times, the VPs don't really know the reality of what's going on, or the actual day-to-day function of stuff of what's going on. I shouldn't say they don't know the reality, I should say they don't know the minute details (PAGS Lower-Level Staff).

> A lot of the areas that were problematic or might be seen by others to be sort of the small issues that sort of gravitated to really large ones were really areas that management dealt with primarily and would not have made it to the executive committee. The stuff that was dealt with at the executive committee was pretty much at the higher level of operations, and even I would say operations is not even the right word, but at a higher level of consideration for how we were able to resolve some of the major concerns (Sport Organization and PAGS Executive Committee Member).

Therefore, issues were time, stakeholder, and hierarchically dependent. Interviewees were conscious of this fact and expected each level to deal with their own level of issues. However, as will be seen below, strategies were not differentiated in the same manner.

Organizational Strategies

While time also impacted the types of strategies used, strategies were more consistent across the stakeholders and hierarchy. This indicates that stakeholder

TABLE 3-3

Issue Categories Faced by Various Organizing Committee Members

Hierarchical Level	Member type	Member	Politics	Visibility	Organizing	Financial	Relationships	Operations	Sport	Infrastructure	Human Resources	Media	Interdependence	Participation	Legacy
			Issue Category												
1	Volunteer	Chairman	X		X	X	X				X	X		X	
	Staff	President-CEO	X			X	X	X			X			X	
		COO	X			X	X	X	X		X		X		
2	Volunteer	Marketing				X									
		Volunteers			X	X	X				X		X	X	
		Games operations			X	X		X		X	X			X	
		Sports			X	X	X	X	X		X		X		X
		CPM		X	X	X		X				X		X	
	Staff	Senior Vice-President	X		X	X	X	X		X	X		X		
		Games operations	X			X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	
		Sports	X		X	X	X	X	X		X		X		X
		CPM		X	X	X		X			X	X	X		
3	Volunteer	Vteam leader 1	X			X	X	X			X		X		
		Vteam leader 2	X			X	X	X			X		X		
		Volunteers				X	X				X		X	X	
	Staff	Sport operations			X	X	X	X	X		X		X		
		Volunteers			X	X	X	X			X		X	X	

behaviour was more consistent when dealing with different individuals within the organizing committee, which is supported by the various stakeholders naming one major type of strategy used when dealing with PAGS. For example, a city representative explained that

> it was pretty much totally win-win. The city went into this from the perspective of we're not fighting these guys to get this done, we're cooperating with the province, the feds, AND the organizing committee to make these Games a success.

A sponsor indicated that they used "constant communication." However, strategies used and the decision-making process depended on two factors besides time: context and resources.

Time was the major decision-making factor and its importance increased as the organizing committee evolved. Early on, contextual and resource parameters framed most decisions as time was not yet a major issue. PAGS's approach was "someone will look at it, we're waiting for someone to get back to us" (PAGS Staff) when needing to make a decision. Contextual aspects related to the city, the region, the province, the country, or the global situation. For example, Winnipeg was hit hard when its National Hockey League (NHL) team, the Winnipeg Jets, left the city. This loss impacted Winnipeg's sportscape:

> First of all, the loss of the NHL team came after the development of this strategy and I think what it did, if anything, is it intensified it a little bit when that happened but we were already at a point where we had attracted some events and I think, if nothing else, we stepped it up a bit to try and compensate for that (Municipal Representative).

> We were coming out of a tougher economy. Into 1995-96, we didn't have all the money we would have liked to have had; we didn't have any extra money for facilities. It was a struggle negotiating anything

> out of the federal government when it was just trying to, for the first time, get into a surplus position and start putting money towards debt. So it was probably one of the worst times in our history to be negotiating for Games money (PAGS Volunteer).

Similarly to the stakeholders, the organizing committee also had a win-win attitude dealing with stakeholders:

> A win-win strategy was used because the Games are put on by volunteers. [PAGS] must find ways to ensure that everyone is engaged—in a meaningful way—thus compromise and negotiation are critical to keeping everything on track. If the Games were a corporate entity, one might deal in a different manner; but they are not" (PAGS Volunteer).

Because they had time and were preparing their plans, PAGS members used a proactive approach in dealing with stakeholders. First, "the organizing committee was proactive in affiliating itself with the different groups" (Community Representative) and getting plans prepared. Then, these plans were discussed with stakeholders and changes were made based on their reactions. A PAGS volunteer explained this proactive-reactive balance:

> It's very difficult to get too far ahead in anything so we could only be on time or behind usually, so we were probably behind in sponsorships then surged ahead and got them completed, so being proactive but then reactive or accommodative. I guess that's the best way to describe it, you couldn't get ahead of the time line. And, you know, being ahead was being on time.

When the organizing committee moved into the implementation mode, time became the major limiting factor: "as time was short there was no time to stop and start again and therefore we were forced to make the best use of what we had" (PAGS Documentation). "It was too late for policies 12 months out. This [was] more operations. It became very fast moving so you couldn't, you didn't have time for debate after a while" (PAGS Volunteer). "The issues became more focused and less general as time went on. [And] as time went on I was able to identify the proper resources to deal with these specific issues" (Provincial Representative). In "the last 6 to 9 months, [it] was more just issues management, a flying by the seats of our pants strategy" (PAGS Staff). "The worst thing you can do is try to control it. You can MONITOR it and you can NUDGE it but you CANNOT control it. It is TOO big. It's TOO diversified and it's TOO decentralized" (PAGS Staff).

Once the Games were over, resources once again became the major factor as most legacy aspects had been pre-planned; therefore, PAGS members were proactive again. By that time, the major concerns were simply to close the organization's books and manage the legacy; therefore, resource issues dominated decision-making. For example, one PAGS Volunteer stated: "To this day, I can remember [the Chairman] saying 'these Games will make a profit. Period, full stop.' And that clarified for everybody, that these Games will leave a legacy of money." This legacy was planned. Table 3-4 summarizes issues dealt with, specific examples of proactive and/or reactive strategies used, and decision-making factors impacting issues and strategies over time.

Results indicate that as time elapsed, the organizing committee moved from a planning to an implementation to a wrap-up mode, moved decision-making down the hierarchy, moved from the idea-developing people to the "doers", moved from a proactive to a reactive strategic approach and then a proactive approach again, and moved from having time to make decisions to troubleshooting. PAGS members increasingly managed according to issues as time evolved, to a point where, during the

TABLE 3-4

Timeline of Mode/Phase, Issues, Strategies and Decision-Making Factors

Mode	Phase	Issues Categories	Strategies Used	Decision-Making Factors
Planning	Bid	Politics, relationships, financial, organizing, infrastructure, visibility	Use experts, test potential with smaller games, develop partnerships with governments, travel to countries, proactive	Context Resources
	Business Plan	Politics, organizing, interdependence, financial, relationships	Risk assessment, use experts, go see groups directly, proactive-reactive balance	Context, Resources
	Operational Plan	Politics, organizing, financial, interdependence, human resources, operations, infrastructure	Risk assessment, 180-day plans, constant communication, use experts, proactive	Resources Context
	Work Packages	Politics, interdependence, financial, operations, infrastructure, relationships	Risk assessment, 180-day plans, open discussion with boundaries, due diligence, proactive	Resources Context
Implementation	Venue Plans	Politics, interdependence, operations, infrastructure, human resources, sport, participation	Risk assessment, 180-day plans, internal proactive coordination, communication	Resources Time
	Games Time	Sport, operations, interdependence, human resources, participation, infrastructure, media, politics	React/firefight, press conferences, Army attaché use/daily meetings, verify accuracies, contingency use	Time
Wrap-Up	Final Report & Post-Games	Legacy, operations, human resources	Research/plan ahead, proactive, selection process	Resources

Games, management focused on "putting out fires"—members were moving from one crisis to another and trying to resolve them as quickly as possible. PAGS members began with a win-win, proactive approach to negotiations with stakeholders—plans were prepared proactively and then modified according to stakeholder comments.

Therefore strategy choices depended not only on the stakeholder's or organizing committee's characteristics but also on limiting factors. In this setting, context, resources, and especially time emerged as issues that framed individuals' decision-making. For each mode, organizing committee members used one general approach for all stakeholders (e.g., reactive during implementation). The mode/phase of the organizing committee determined the strategic approach.

Upon examining the strategies used more closely, interviewees used collaboration, cooperation, interaction and participation interchangeably. For example, the municipal representative stated that "there was good communication, good cooperation between the politicians of the city, particularly the mayor of the day, and the organizing committee [and], if anything, it just got stronger as the organizing committee was formed and collaborated." As well, compromise, accommodation, discussion and negotiation were used interchangeably to describe the same management approaches. For example, a PAGS volunteer stated that "compromise and negotiation are critical to keeping everything on track." Managers interviewed in this study did not differentiate between compromise and negotiation, or collaboration and cooperation. These terms all represented the same approach to stakeholder and issues management: a win-win approach, which involved discussing what each party can do—and is willing to do—and then coming to an understanding that will be mutually beneficial. This paper proposes using limiting factors to determine the appropriate type of strategy—time, context, and resources in the case of large-scale sporting events. Future research can empirically compare these limiting factors in order to determine the range and influence of such factors in different contexts.

In this study, interviewees described their decision-making processes as follows: negotiation and discussion occurred in a spirit of collaboration and cooperation, which led to compromise and accommodation through flexibility and adaptation, a process defining the win-win approach. Interviewees used communication, coordination, collaboration, cooperation, and participation to describe how they achieved success. This was supplemented with the use of experts/consultants, hiring the right people, motivating and exciting people, delegating, having strong leadership, and having a strong team. Reacting, crisis management, and "putting out fires" or "firefighting" were used interchangeably to explain the same strategic approach. Proactive, pushing, approaching, threatening and increasing efforts were used interchangeably to explain another strategic approach. This was supported by doing background research and making plans, undertaking risk assessments and due diligence exercises, preparing for contingencies, getting support from stakeholders, and acquiring and transmitting information and/or resources.

Conclusion

This study explored a sport event organizing committee's issues and strategies from its beginning to its closure. Findings highlight how issues vary over time, across stakeholders and down the organizing committee hierarchy. Organizing committee members operate in three different modes as the organization evolves: planning, implementation, and wrap-up. Across these modes, issues move from plan development to operationalizing those plans in venues to managing the legacy. Strategies evolve from a proactive to a reactive to a proactive management approach. Issues depend on the stakeholders involved, with financial concerns being an overarching issue for all concerned. Organizing committee members deal with specific issues that change down the hierarchy, with top management dealing with the "major issues" such as overall objectives and budget control, middle managers dealing with division-specific issues, and lower managers dealing with operational, human resources, relationship, and interdependence issues.

This study shows how issues are time-specific and how different types of strategies and approaches are used at different moments of the organization's life. This study also highlights a range of issues that event managers can expect to face at different time points and for different stakeholder groups. Future research should examine the impact of each issue type on the successful hosting of an event such as the degree to which politics influence event hosting. Researchers should also consider how and why repeated restructurings occur within sport event organizing committees (e.g., 1999 Pan American Games, 2005 Montreal World Swimming Championships, and 2006 Turin Olympic Games) given that human resources and relationships emerged as important issues organizing committee members had to manage. Could political influences be at the root of the need to restructure with government-imposed job placements? Are there other reasons? As well, future research should consider what the interrelationships between the various issue categories are. These are all questions that need answers so that organizing committees may be able to operate more efficiently and effectively.

This study provides an initial description of decision-making processes in the context of large-scale sporting events. Event managers now have a range of strategy types that can be used depending on their issues, context, resources, time, and stakeholders. As well, decision-making processes must now be explored in greater detail and be compared to the decision-making literature, especially Eisenhardt's (1989) findings on decision-making in high-velocity or fast-paced environments. More precisely, while Eisenhardt provided certain decision-making characteristics for high-velocity environments (e.g., use of more information, use of more alternatives, and use of conflict-resolution), findings in this study indicate that strategies and issues change as velocity increases. Moreover, this study provides broader types of characteristics (context, resources, and time) than does Eisenhardt; a fact that can make this study's findings applicable to a broader range of organizations. One way to explore velocity and decision-making would be to attend meetings of different organizations at a variety of time points to determine inter-organizational and temporal differences, as well as the limiting factors of decision-making.

As well, this study provides a broad overview of the types of issues and strategic approaches used by an organizing committee. As an in-depth examination of each particular issue and strategic approach was beyond the scope of this paper, future research should examine specific issue categories, specific issues, specific strategic approaches, and/or specific strategies to build the sport event management literature. For example, within the visibility issue category is the issue of the organizing committee's image (and by extension, identity). For this specific issue, what is the image and identity construction process (where do these aspects come from) and how are they managed (what types of strategies are used)?

Finally, the differences between this study and the existing academic literature may indicate some of the unique features of major games. Future research should examine the way organizing committee members and stakeholders define an organizing committee as an organization. For example, is it a corporation or a volunteer-based organization or a non-profit organization? As well, event managers now have a general organizational evolution framework to follow. Future research could examine the implication of this framework for different types of games (e.g., Olympic Games, Paralympic Games, and various regional games) and different types of temporary organizations (e.g., festivals, movies, construction projects).

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CHAPTER 4

Paper 3

Organizational Image and Identity Management in Large-Scale Sporting Events

The process by which organizations construct and manage identities, images, and reputations has become an increasingly important area of research for management scholars (Fombrun, 1996; Moingeon & Soenen, 2002; Schultz, Hatch & Larsen, 2000). An organization's identity is defined as how members view the defining characteristics of their organization (Albert & Whetten, 1985), while image refers to how external others see the same organization (Gioia, Schultz, & Corley, 2000). For example, Dutton and Dukerich (1991) explained how organizational members of the New York Port Authority saw themselves (identity) as professional, ethical, first-class, committed to the region, a family, and as having a can-do attitude. Members did not see themselves as a social service business. However, this is precisely the image that the general public had of the organization. Reputation is defined as the accumulation of outside stakeholders' perceptions of the organization—i.e., an aggregate of images built up over time (Fombrun, 1996). For example, Carter and Deephouse (1999) described how Wal-Mart had developed two reputations: 1) tough with suppliers; and 2) good to investors and customers.

Typically, organizational images stem from the organization's identity and are projected out to and perceived by the organization's stakeholders (Stimpert, Gustafson & Sarason, 1998; Scott & Lane, 2000). These stakeholders are described as any individual, group or organization that has an impact on or can be affected (directly or indirectly) by an organization's actions (Freeman, 1984). As well, organizational identity has been shown to shape the perceptions, strategic choices/actions of managers (Ocasio, 1997) and, through images, to be a way to describe the organization to its stakeholders (Stimpert et al., 1998).

Most research on this topic has focused on for-profit, business-sector organizations. Few studies examine not-for-profit organizations, such as volunteer, charity, or public sector entities (see Glynn, 2000, and Golden-Biddle & Rao, 1997 for notable exceptions); and few if any have examined temporary organizations, such as movie projects, political campaigns, or the particular focus here, large-scale sporting events like the Olympic Games. To the degree that there are major differences in how organizational identity, image, and reputation are constructed and managed in these types of organizations vis-à-vis traditional businesses, there may then be a significant gap in our understanding of these issues. This study aims to address this gap in the literature and, as such, aims to address one future direction stated in Paper 2 of this thesis, to examine in greater depth the issue of image and identity management, which is part of the visibility issue category.

In addition to being not-for-profit entities, large-scale sporting events are also unique in that they are typically run by organizing committees that are only temporary organizations. That is, although the International Olympic Committee oversees the selection of a host site, such as Athens for the 2004 Summer Olympic Games, the actual 2004 Olympic Games organizing committee was a locally-based-and-managed entity, one which existed only for a few years leading up to and through the event. These kinds of events have been described as a paradox: as an official entity, they exist temporarily but they attempt to carve out an identity that lasts for generations (Porsander, 2000).

Some event organizing committees have been successful in projecting images that result in forging very favourable long-term identities (or reputations), such as the 1994 Lillehammer Olympics being the first to be seen as "the Green Games," an identity that was taken up by the 2000 Sydney Olympics. In other cases, games had images placed upon them by external stakeholders, and often these images have not been so favourable, resulting in games having negative reputations. For example, the 1996 Atlanta Olympics were and still are seen as the "commercial games," or the "Coca-Cola games," or the "McDonalds games." The 1976 Montreal Olympics were and are still seen as a financial fiasco. As well, no one can forget the images of terror associated with the 1972 Munich Games. Created before and/or during the games, negative images can dull the long-term reputation of the event.

While the control of such reputations is, in effect, practically impossible, as the organizing committees are temporary and yet the reputations of the events are an ongoing construction, the precursors to reputation can be managed: organizational identity and image. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to examine how image and identity are constructed and managed in a temporary organization—specifically, a major multi-sport games event organizing committee. Furthermore, because these types of organizations are essentially constituted by the organizing committee (the event itself is not an organization), I focus on the role that the organizing committee plays in managing identities and images. Within the sport event management literature, little research has been done on organizational image and identity management. Most research has examined the city/country's (or destination's) image/identity (cf. Chalip, Green & Hill, 2003; Dimanche, 1997; Molotch, Freudenburg & Paulsen, 2000; Ritchie & Smith, 1991; Silk & Andrews, 2001; Whitson & Macintosh, 1996), not the organizing committees' perspective. The organizing committee's image and the destination's image can be separated if one considers that despite the negative results of Montreal's or New Orleans' mega-events, individuals still enjoy those cities as destinations. Also, this research is based mostly on survey data and therefore provides a narrow, pre-determined perspective on organizational image and identity management when compared to an open-ended interview approach.

This paper aims to make significant contributions to both the literature on organizational identity and image as well as the literature on sport event management. As noted above, there is little research on organizational identity and image management in not-for-profit organizations. Despite the importance that athletics plays in today's society, this area of organizational life is almost completely unexplored. Thus, this study attempts to provide valuable insight into how identities and images are constructed and managed in temporary, sport organizations. In terms of the sport event management literature, although there is a body of work on how events are organized and managed (cf. Getz, 1993; Hall, 1992), the aspect of image and identity has been relatively underexamined as stated above. Those studies that have examined images have focused on cultural and national images (e.g., Silk, 1999; Silk & Andrews, 2001) rather than organizational images, and virtually none of this work has explored the active construction and management of the organization's identity and image (cf. Berkaak, 1999). Thus, this research expands our understanding of sport event management by integrating the dimension of organizational identity and image and exploring how an organizing committee manages these identities and images. This paper first presents issues related to images and identities. Next, the specific data analysis procedures are offered. Results are then presented and discussed.

Image and Identity Management Issues

In order to examine the image and identity management processes in large-scale sporting event organizing committees, this paper first presents the core concepts of organizational identity, image, and reputation, and discusses the image and identity management processes. Organizational identity is the set of self-definitions that members use to answer the question "who are we as an organization?" (Albert & Whetten, 1985). Furthermore, an organization's identity consists of those characteristics of an organization that its members believe are central and distinctive (cf. Albert & Whetten, 1985; Soenen & Moingeon, 2002). The meaning of organizational image, while closely related to that of identity, has been and continues to evolve in the literature. Early on, an organization's image was defined as members' beliefs about how outsiders see their organization (Dutton & Dukerich, 1991). Increasingly, image is being conceptualized as how external constituents themselves view the organization (Hatch & Schultz, 2000), and the terms image and reputation are becoming somewhat interchangeable. Reputation, as noted above, refers to the aggregate impressions that external stakeholders have about the organization; and while images are thought of as somewhat transient, reputations are seen as more long-lasting (Fombrun, 1996).

In addition to the multiplicity of terms and conceptualizations of organizational identity, there is a growing body of literature dealing with multiple identities of and within an organization. Albert and Whetten (1985) first proposed the idea of an organization possessing more than one identity, and subsequent research has shown that those identities may or may not necessarily be seen as complementary (Foreman & Whetten, 2000; Glynn, 2000; Golden-Biddle & Rao, 1997). Fombrun (1996) then proposed that organizations may have a corporate image that is moulded for different stakeholders, thereby resulting in multiple images from one corporate identity. He offered the following stakeholder-specific image possibilities: customer, community, investor, and employee images.

Fombrun's (1996) tailoring of organizational images to different stakeholders is supported by more recent management research. Scott and Lane (2000) proposed that the organization will project images to the various stakeholders who will then reflect those images back to the organization. This image process then affects the construction of the organization's identity. Pratt and Foreman (2000), meanwhile, argued that multiple organizational identities can be managed, and they developed a classification scheme of identity management strategies. However, all of the above propositions are theoretical in nature; empirical testing remains to be done to verify these claims.

Within the sport management literature, image and identity have typically been examined in the context of the media or of the region/destination/country. For example, Bourgeois and Whitson (1995) examined the progressive commodification of sports and the marketing of fan identification to illustrate the formation of markets of identities and the normalization of mosaic-like identities, thereby showing some indication of possible multiple terms of reference for identities. More prominent is the examination of destination, city or country image in relation to events. Ritchie and Smith (1991) did a longitudinal study of the 1988 Calgary Winter Olympics to show how an event can increase awareness level and modify a city's image. But they also stated that image decay occurs shortly after the event. Molotch et al. (2000) found that place—similar to my conceptualization of identity for a region, in this case—is related to both its character and its history or tradition. Similarly, Magdalinski (2000) explained how history is intrinsic to building national identity. Silk and Andrews (2001) examined the role played by transnational corporations and their promotional element in the re-imaging of national cultures (a topic further explored in Silk, Andrews and Cole, 2005). Chalip et al. (2003) found that the event telecast, event advertising, and destination advertising each affect different dimensions of the destination's image.

Nevertheless, an organizing committee's image and identity may be influenced by the city/destination/country, as well as the media, part of which includes history.

McDonald's (1991) description of the Los Angeles Olympic Organizing Committee's culture formation uses the traditional elements—such as stories, symbols, language, and myths—but also the influence of the individuals within the organizing committee as key to the culture formation process in this temporary organization.

McDonald (1991) also stated that culture (or identity) formation was partly orchestrated yet also partly spontaneous. But, how are image and identity managed and are the processes the same, linked, or separated? These are issues that the organizational image and identity literatures have attempted to answer. Scott and Lane (2000) proposed that there is a feedback loop between projected organizational images (to stakeholders) and reflected organizational images, which then help construct the organization's identity. However, this is a theoretical proposition, one that remains to be empirically confirmed. There is also a lack of detail as to how specifically (i.e., strategies, approaches) organizations manage this feedback loop. Pratt and Foreman's (2000) framework of identity management strategies is based on the plurality and synergy of the identities. As in the case of Scott and Lane, no actual, specific mechanisms for executing these identity management strategies are discussed. Pratt and Foreman argued for future research needing to specify identity management mechanisms and to examine the boundaries and constraints of the identity management process.

Thus, this paper investigates the following issues. First, the types of images and identities created by organizing committees are examined. Second, I investigate image and identity management, specifically the management process and strategies used by organizing committees.

Method

This study used both the *Comité Organisateur des Jeux de la Francophonie* (Games of La Francophonie Organizing Committee; hereafter COJF) and the Pan American Games Host Society (PAGS) as its research settings. Chapter 1 provides details as to these research settings, as well as to the data collection and general data analysis techniques. The following provides details about the content analysis relating specifically to image and identity management.

Two tables were created. The first table included the list of the terms mentioned by interviewees in relation to image and identity. Terms were then grouped into categories. Which organizing committee members and stakeholder mentioned each term and whether changes occurred was noted. The second table included the list of image/identity management actions or strategies used in relation to stakeholder groups and which, if any, image/identity category related to these actions/strategies. These tables facilitated the extrapolation of the results.

Results and Discussion

The purpose of this paper was to examine how image and identity are constructed and managed by sport event organizing committees. In other words, what are their terms of reference for constructing images and identities and who/what is involved in managing these aspects? Each issue's related results are now described.

Organizational Images and Identities

In the literature, image and identity typically answer the questions 'how do we project ourselves' (how do others see us?) and 'who are we?' (what is our organization's mission?) While the literature would suggest that there are only a few answers to these questions for a given organization (cf. Fombrun, 1996), my data on image and identity suggests there are many possible answers. These answers were distilled into three major categories: the nature of the context, the nature of the event, and the nature of the individuals.

Terms relating to the nature of the context included any reference to the city, the region, province, state, or country, in terms of language, culture, past events, general feelings, the weather, or population behaviour (what the people are known for). The nature of the context is seen in the following quote:

> Putting it in your own climate, here in Winnipeg, of how it works. Like maybe someone told you 'yeah, this is the way it was done' 'yeah, but you know what, this is Winnipeg, this isn't Montreal.' Or things like that (PAGS Staff).

Terms relating to the event itself included such things as the event's scope, international nature (or otherwise), its use as a tool or strategy by a specific group, its size, its needs and results, and its components. The nature of the event for the COJF is seen in the following quote:

> Large games in relation to previous editions of the *Jeux de la Francophonie*, yes; large games in relation to the Olympic Games, not at all. We can't give ourselves that kind of pretension. We didn't want to aspire to the Olympics but we wanted to ensure that, within what was stated for the *Jeux of la Francophonie*, we succeeded in attracting the elite, we succeeded in attracting crowds, and we succeeded in commercializing the *Jeux de la Francophonie* (COJF Staff).

Terms relating to the nature of the individuals included the composition of the organizing committee, its leadership, the members' abilities, the members' past reputation (reputation in the community) and the members' management approach. The nature of the individuals is seen in the following quote:

> The Pan Am Games were [the Chairman]. We featured [the Chairman] on every announcement. We used him in every situation. When we got the uniforms, we dressed him up and had his picture taken. He's a very senior member in the business community in this town, and very, very popular with his staff of 12,000 who would all praise the ground that he walked on, you know, and so it was our strategy to use [the Chairman]. And then he's a motivator, he's good at getting people worked up [to] move forward. He, HE was the Pan Am Games (PAGS Volunteer).

While there were a few terms mentioned, which were specific for one (e.g., "francofunny games" for the *Jeux de la Francophonie* mentioned by an English Canadian hockey television personality), most were common to both events. No evidence of conflict was found between categories and no differences were found between the overall images (what organizing committee members projected to stakeholders) and identities (how organizing committee members perceived the organizing committee) presented by organizing committee members. Table 4-1 presents the various common images and identities terms related to the 2001 *Jeux de la Francophonie* and the 1999 Pan American Games according to the three categories described above.

As such, results from previous research on destination image (e.g., Chalip et al., 2003) and the place of history in identity building (e.g., Magdalinski, 2000) are supported in the context-related concepts for organizing committees. As well, findings

TABLE 4-1

Organizing Committee Image and Identity Terms and Categories

Nature of the Context	Nature of the Event	Nature of the Individual
Region/Canadian business/Community representation Francophonie/Americas History Visibility/Highlight/Must see/Showcase/High profile/Coverage/Awareness/Attention Risky Large/Major/Big/Important/Magnitude Defection opportunity to host country	International Language History Visibility/Highlight/Must see/Showcase/High profile/Coverage/Awareness/Attention Risky Quality/World-class/Elite/Best ever/Prestige Large/Major/Big/Important/Magnitude Hosting/Deliver Project/Tool/Opportunity Special/Unique Sanctioned/Standards Legacy/Benefit Honest/Reasonable/Open/Trust/Faith Beautiful/Look-feel/Nice Party/Fun/Enthusiasm/Friendly Welcoming/Service/Experience Complexity/Challenge Credibility/Legitimacy/Accountability/Transparency Artists/Cultural/Ceremonies Athletes/Sports/Field of play Participation/Involvement Political/Governmental/Lobby Small versus Olympics Youth Commercial	Regional/Canadian/Businessman/Community representative Leadership Networking/Recognition Credibility/Legitimacy/Accountability/Transparency Party/Fun/Enthusiasm Honest/Reasonable/Open/Trust/Faith Athletes/Sports/Field of play Participation/Involvement Political/Government Complexity/Challenge Youth Hosting/Deliver Capable/Competent/Efficient/Effective/Professional/Organized/ Winning society Lack of knowledge Team/Together/Share/Chemistry Top management representative Learning Work-hard/Dedicated/Can-do Respect Non-profit

also support McDonald's (1991) suggestion that organizing committee members influence identity. This study therefore extends and combines previous research by focusing on the organizing committee's images and identities and on how previously suggested concepts (e.g., history) are integrated into the image or identity construction process. These findings can be extended to other cities such as Edmonton, Alberta with its reputation as a good host—having successfully hosted the 1978 University Games, the 1983 Commonwealth Games, and the 2001 World Track & Field Championships—thereby creating a foundation for future Edmonton-based organizing committees' images and identities.

Image and Identity Management

The variety of images and identities indicated the importance organizing committee members placed on these aspects. Organizing committees "have to make that a priority, that they understand clearly what they're all about, what their mission is 'this is what we represent'" (PAGS Staff). Another PAGS staff member explained the importance in this way:

> I think that fact of life can't be ignored by anyone else getting involved in big games because it's human nature. It's the whole thing about like going to a restaurant and having a bad experience. If you have a bad experience, you tell 7 people, if you have a good experience, you might only [tell one], it just doesn't get shared as much, right, which is why we're left quite often as human beings with more negative impressions about things than we are with positive [impressions].

When the image and identity data were examined, two aspects of image and identity management emerged: 1) the process; and 2) the management strategies used to control images.

Management process. Depending on their nature, interests, interpretive schemes, and role in the event, different stakeholder groups picked up on different image/identity concepts: "Images basically depended on the arena in which we were working" (COJF Volunteer). For example, the governments' role as funding partners as well as their cost control concerns led them to pick up on the fiscal responsibility of the organizing committees: "the province passed the first balanced budget in Canada, so certainly the due diligence and the financial prudence of any of the investment groups were looked at with a fine-toothed comb. I spent many hours with Treasury Board analysts" (Provincial Representative). Organizing committee members were conscious of this fact:

> [The governments] wanted to make sure that the Games were good. They didn't want to be embarrassed. I mean it is one thing for [the president-CEO] to be embarrassed, it's another thing for the 3 levels of government to be embarrassed. So they wanted to make sure they got their money's worth, you know what I'm saying, on the political side, making sure all their hang-arounders got their tickets and the look and feel, and the rest of it (PAGS Staff).
>
> I think first of all, financial ability. We had to show that we were financially competent, accountable, [and] responsible. That would be number one. And operationally effective and sensitive to the needs of all those organizations in terms of, as senior partners, as to what their needs were. I think we did that (PAGS Staff).

Table 4-2 provides a description of the images sent to the various major stakeholder groups. As can be seen in the table and in the above statements, images projected to the stakeholder groups were related to what the organizing committee perceived as the stakeholders' needs.

TABLE 4-2

Common Images Projected to Stakeholder Groups by the Jeux de la Francophonie and the Pan American Games Organizing Committees

Stakeholder Group	**Images Projected by Organizing Committee**
Canadian Governments	High profile event, opportunity to support something good for the community with legacy and spin off (long-term) consequences, Canadian, opportunity to showcase themselves, opportunity for signage/visibility/press conferences, fiscally responsible organizing committee, trusting, open, honest
Media	Canadian content, name recognition, opportunity to sell more news through exclusivity, quality event, community event
Delegations	Best experience—especially for young athletes—preparation for larger games like the Olympic Games, chance for mutual opportunities (e.g., trade between countries, training assistance)
Community	Professional undertaking by community for community, good for community, best-ever, fun, excitement, involvement, history (e.g., re-capturing the 1967 Winnipeg Pan American Games legacy and experience), once in a lifetime, unique, friendly
Sports Organizations	Opportunity for legacy and facilities, opportunity to develop young athletes and gain valuable experience for athletes overall, visibility for local/provincial/national organizations

While organizing committee members attempted to focus their message, stakeholders picked up on all three categories of image and identity terms, presumably from other stakeholders such as the media. In the image projection process, organizing committee members would often use all three categories in their message, as in this example:

> We had the image of what the Games WERE, the largest multi-cultural sport ever held within North America. Part of our job in there too was

> to create the lines, the things that always needed to be said when anybody was referring to the Games, ensure that it was '41 countries, 42 sports, largest this, this, this, most sports ever, most athletes'… The important thing was [also] to showcase Winnipeg first, which I thought was important because I live here—this was my life and what I had to do—but showcase a major international event that this city, province, country could be proud about. It really truly was Canadian pride. And we used that slogan as well, Canadian Pride, because the Games were about the athletes but everybody else needed to be a part of it (PAGS Staff).

How stakeholders perceived the organizing committee also impacted how they determined whether the event was a success. For example, since the governments looked for fiscal responsibility, the economic results of the event were a way by which the governments determined the event's success. When comparing the Pan American Games to the North American Indigenous Games held in Winnipeg three years later (in 2002), the federal government representative stated:

> The North American Indigenous Games had a far greater local economic impact because it was more of a family event, higher percentage of people stayed in motels, lower end hotels, shopping malls and stores were delighted, it was like Christmas in July, that's what they called it. But not for the Pan American Games.

Also, organizing committee members involved in the communications, promotions, and/or media-related divisions were keenly aware of the need for flexibility, for changing, modifying, or re-directing image efforts, depending on the feedback from the various stakeholders:

> We were constantly modifying everything (laugh). We didn't know what we would be starting with. 'Oh here's a success, now we can do this; oooh, that one lined up; now we can do this.' We were constantly revising things. But we met as a board, god it seemed like very day, but it was maybe every week, to review it, to report on status, and to move forward. That makes people work hard when they know they have to respond and be responsible; you can't put it off (PAGS Volunteer).

As such, there was a feedback loop of sorts between the organizing committee and the stakeholders. This feedback loop could be direct, organizing committee-stakeholder, or indirect, organizing committee-media (or other stakeholder like sponsors)-stakeholder. As mentioned earlier, while the projected images were relatively focused, stakeholders picked up on more images than were projected directly to them, presumably from other stakeholders (e.g., sponsor-government; sponsor-community; government-government; government-sport organizations). For example, PAGS projected images of a high profile event as a Canadian opportunity to support something good for the community with legacy and spin-off (long-term) consequences, an opportunity to showcase the community, an opportunity for signage/visibility/press conferences, and a fiscally responsible trusting, open, and honest organizing committee. However, the municipal representative also discussed images relating to the event as an opportunity for knowledge increase and participation and as a strategy or tool for creating international trade, as the following quotes from the municipal representative suggest:

> I'll come back to the image thing, to say it again because it was very important. I guess the city [saw] some legacies from the Games by way of experience in organizing events, getting city staff that weren't necessarily on the organizing committee but working for the city to sort of be in tune with what's required leading up to and during major events. [And] adding to that, I think there was a community involvement that was pretty important for the city as well. Various ethnic and cultural groups [were] a part of this event [which] helped bring those groups together.
>
> There was a major push for North-South trade between Canada and well, it's called the North-American Trade Corridor and Canada, central States and into Mexico, it was a kind of major initiative that the

> city was embarking on and they saw the Pan Am Games as a natural fit in that regard. So that was the Pan Am Games came about being a preferred event because it fit in with that strategy.

Still, the media played a particular role in the image transmission process, a role central to a sport event's preparation. This role gives the media significant power which is:

> ENORMOUS. For the public, there is only the media that can inform people on what is happening, on whatever organization it is. It is ALWAYS the media that has the biggest part of the stick in the image for WHATEVER thing it be. If the media decides to SINK you, you are FINISHED. I am convinced of this so that's why it's extremely important that for whatever event you do to have the media on your side (COJF Staff).

Like other stakeholders, the media acted as an information transmitter, a role acknowledged by a PAGS volunteer:

> Our job is to construct our own image and the media's job is to translate that onto the newspapers or onto the TV screens. You wouldn't do well with the media creating the image themselves. And A) it would be wrong; and B) it would be a fast moving train without an end to it.

Organizing committees used the media to get their message out to different stakeholder groups, to boost awareness and interest: "Key integration with media was a key to the success of promotions. A major Sport Icon Contest was developed to help create Games awareness" (PAGS Documentation).

> A multimedia campaign was developed to tie the Games to Winnipeg with creative highlighting of local athletes in very prominent Winnipeg locations. It depicted what Winnipeg was all about! This campaign was used for the balance of the Games locally and nationally, while being adapted and updated. This campaign launched our ticket sales program with a 20 page insert bound in the MTS telephone yellow pages, complete with a ticket schedule and order form. All exterior advertising

> was designed to get the public to go to the yellow pages to order their tickets (PAGS Documentation).
>
> Special national campaigns were developed through sponsorships with the *Globe & Mail*, WIC Radio, TSN and CBC. These campaigns began 5 months out and included [the athlete-ambassador] Donovan Bailey. All advertising, brochures, posters and collateral included sponsor logos. A comprehensive advertising campaign was developed for our sponsors that also included magazine, outdoor, television, radio & bus boards. Our web site was one of our best advertising tools constantly being updated with ticketing information (PAGS Documentation).

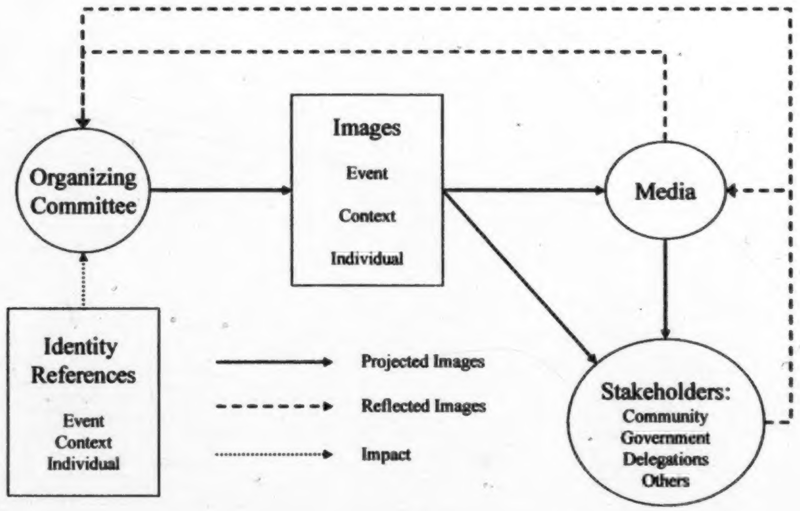
This use of the media as transmitter continued into the Games. "Info'99 was the Intranet system managed by Technology which during the Games gave the media access to all comprehensive Games information as well as all results" (PAGS Documentation).

However, the media—unlike other stakeholders—also had the power to filter information and organizing committee members were fully conscious of this issue: "I would say that most people out there didn't understand how the Games were organized, and so what they saw was [what] was portrayed to the public by the media" (PAGS Volunteer).

> Media's job technically is to report. They should take facts and take the exact facts, in an ideal world, report those exact facts to the rest of the world. That's an ideal media. In reality, they decide what they want it to be at the front and then they go create the story to go around it, in most cases (PAGS Volunteer).
>
> The key is whether or not [the media] believe what you're selling and they can convey that as well. And if you get a very negative media or they feel that there's a negative feeling in the community that this event should not come to town, then it certainly can hurt you (PAGS Staff).

Findings indicate that there is a feedback loop present in image and identity management where the organizing committee projects images directly to specific stakeholders or through the media. The stakeholders then reflect what they have perceived back to the organizing committee, which can then decide whether or not to modify their projected images. This feedback loop allows organizing committee members to bring specific stakeholders onside and to achieve specific goals. Image and identity management is an important process for event managers and is intrinsic to the organizing committee's relationship with its stakeholders. As such, this image and identity management supports Scott and Lane's (2000) stakeholder approach to image/identity management. However, more interaction between the stakeholders in developing their images of the organizing committee was found in this study than what Scott and Lane indicated. Figure 4-1 provides an overview of the image and identity construction and management process.

FIGURE 4-1. *The Image and Identity Construction and Management Process for Organizing Committees*


Organizing Committee
Images
Event
Context
Individual
Media
Identity References
Event
Context
Individual
Projected Images
Reflected Images
Impact
Stakeholders:
Community
Government
Delegations
Others

Management strategies. In order to transmit their images, organizing committee members employed various strategies. There was an initial identity focus by top management through the creation of the vision. This was based on the type of games, the context, and the desired end-product:

> One [objective] was to run the best possible event that the young athletes would ever compete in so that when they left, they would be saying at the end of their athletic career 'that was the best experience I've ever had.' The second objective was to use the Games as a community building exercise for the community of Winnipeg to pull together people from all areas of the community to work together on a common project that would give the community a sense of its capabilities and a sense of the range of talents available and an experience of working together collectively on a major event. The third objective we had was to showcase Winnipeg to other parts of North America and also to showcase, and make Winnipeggers more aware of, the rest of North America given the increasing importance of NAFTA and North-South trading corridors (PAGS Volunteer).

Once the vision was set, the communications, promotions, and/or media-related divisions took over the role of managing most of the images projected to the various stakeholder groups—some images, especially those relating to the reputation of top management individuals, could not be managed however. Members used two types of strategies for transmitting their images.

First, verbal communication strategies were used. These strategies included radio, TV, internet and print transmissions; funding/sponsor conferences; press conferences; community presentations; formal and informal meetings; creating word-of-mouth; creating a dedicated division in organizing committee; and using an athlete-ambassador to put a face on the Games as one PAGS staff member explained:

> One of the things I was involved in is we needed a figurehead for the Pan American Games. [Another] strategy from the Winnipeg market

> was to relive part of the 1967 [Pan American Games], some of the great things that had happened. Part of the other big strategies that we did use for the Pan American Games was the internet.

Using the 1967 Pan American Games as a strategy allowed the organizing committee to build on the "best Games ever" (PAGS Volunteer) reputation these Games received and "go back and do it again" (PAGS Volunteer) and get that same "community involvement" feeling (PAGS Volunteer) the 1967 edition had created. The 1967 edition had created a positive feeling the community remembered so PAGS could use that positive feeling for the 1999 edition.

Second, symbolic communication strategies were used such as pre-games banners/decorations on buildings, poles, information pamphlets, "bells and whistles" as one PAGS volunteer mentioned:

> It was a week before this thing would get started and I looked out through the window and there was a blimp like at the football games and all of Winnipeg looked up and saw this blimp and said 'I GUESS THIS IS REAL, I GUESS THIS IS REALLY HAPPENING, I MEAN LOOK, THEY'VE SENT A BLIMP.'

Some stakeholders such as sponsors and governments assisted in producing these symbolic communication strategies: "We provided the street banners, poles and stuff" (federal representative).

One key aspect of image and identity management strategies was determining who or how to transmit the message:

> Communication is best when it comes from a credible source. So it's not the message; it's who's delivering it. And so how do you get the message out to the stakeholders? You find the credible messenger. Whether it is the relationship with your government funding partners or the business community or the general public; the organizing committee needs to find the credible message givers and ensure that

> they are sending the agreed-upon message to their stakeholder group (PAGS Volunteer).

Verbal communication strategies were used for all stakeholder groups. The number of specific strategies and/or the amount of effort placed on these strategies—such as the number of conferences and meetings, the amount of time spent going out and informally meeting individuals—increased as the importance of the stakeholder for achieving the organizing committee's goals increased. For example, the governments and sponsors, as the major funding sources for the organizing committee, had many more opportunities to interact with the organizing committee to get a truer sense of who the organizing committee was than did other stakeholders such as the Aboriginal community. Without money, there would have been no event.

In contrast, symbolic communication strategies were used for more indirect or distant stakeholders, namely the public (indirect) and the delegations (geographically distant). All the strategies attempted to encompass more than one image/identity category. For example, the various messages sent as exemplified in previous quotes incorporated the three categories. Another example is the banners on buildings which were initiated by the 1999 Pan American Games and repeated by the 2002 Salt Lake City Winter Olympic Games. These banners linked key community buildings (context) with key figures and sports (event). Therefore, not only is the credible messenger important but so too are the types of strategies, the effort placed in relation to the strategy types, and how these strategies link the three categories of image and identity terms.

Spending time from the outset on image and identity conceptualizations helps the event be successful and facilitates major stakeholder support (funding partners, sports organizations, community, media, delegations). Stakeholders focus on specific images based on the stakeholders' role, interests, and interpretive schemes but also pick up on all three image/identity categories. How stakeholders perceive the organizing committee and its event becomes the measuring stick for determining the event's success. Part of this process, as indicated by the findings, is hiring individuals with the right reputation, as well as the right skills, to make the event successful such as for the hiring of the volunteer chairs of PAGS. These findings therefore provide strategic implications for managing multiple images and identities. The strategies found in this study included verbal (conferences, meetings, etc.) and symbolic (banners, blimps, etc.) communication strategies.

Conclusion

This study examined how image and identity are constructed and managed by sport event organizing committees. More precisely, the focus was on the role that organizing committees play in the image and identity management process. Findings indicate that the variety of identities and images created and managed can be distilled into three categories: the nature of the context, of the event, and of the individuals.

Carefully constructed images and identities allow stakeholders to be brought onside to assist more efficiently in delivering a games, supporting the importance of image and identity management in sport events. Based on their roles and interests, stakeholders focus on different images and use these image concepts as measuring sticks for determining the event's success. However, stakeholders also pick up on more terms from all three categories than those strategically directed to them by the organizing committee. The image/identity process can be described as a feedback loop between the organizing committee and its stakeholders, with the media sometimes acting as a filter (putting their own spin on the process and the content) and sometimes acting simply as a transmitter of information. The media's dual role provides this stakeholder with a powerful position in the image/identity management process. Stakeholders also interact amongst themselves to transmit organizing committee images. These findings indicate the presence of indirect channels of image transmission, channels which are beyond the organizing committee's control. Thus, future research needs to directly, empirically test Scott and Lane's (2000) framework to determine if and how it explains the image and identity construction process for not-for-profit, temporary organizations in light of the fact that these concepts are built upon three factors (event + context + individuals).

Future research should examine the various stakeholder roles in greater detail as they relate to image and identity management, especially with regards to potential conflicts of interest and roles as in the case of the media. The host broadcaster, for example, has a specific role in terms of assisting the organizing committee in welcoming foreign media and providing the television feed but, the broadcaster itself is also a media whose goal is to increase viewership and provide a critical eye on the event through its reporters. How this stakeholder deals with this dual role and how, if at all, it impacts the relationship between this stakeholder and the organizing committee should be examined so as to provide greater detail in the image-identity management process for all involved in that process.

As this study illustrated, event managers have recourse to two types of image/identity management strategies to project their images: verbal and symbolic communication strategies. The more stakeholders are important for organizing committee goals, the more strategies are used to project images. Verbal communication strategies are used for all stakeholder groups while symbolic communication strategies are used primarily for more distant or indirect stakeholders. Finding a credible messenger is also essential in effective image and identity management. Determining whether verbal and symbolic are the two predominant image/identity management strategies in ephemeral organizations, as well as enduring organizations, is a topic for future study. The relative effectiveness of these strategy types is also a future research issue.

I acknowledge that there is a fine, hard to define line between image and identity definitions, as well as other related concepts such as reputation, impression, identification, culture, or branding. I provided a clear distinction between image and identity for purposes of this study. But I take up the call by Ravasi and van Rekom (2003) for deeper exploration of the distinctions between these concepts. For example, when does the image become a reputation: is it once the event is over; is there a delay; is it perhaps in relation to the level of control the organization has over the concepts; and what about enduring organizations? Also, is the history of a region or the context better defined as place or reputation? Those are issues that merit future research for a significant contribution to the sport management and broader management literatures.

Finally, this study falls within a functionalist approach (i.e., identity and image are a social fact) to image and identity research (cf. Gioia, 1998) taken at a macro, organizational perspective. However, another popular approach is social identity theory, which focuses on individuals' perceptions. For example, Ashforth and Mael (1989) use this approach to examine how individuals identify with a group. This approach is a micro, individual perspective, which could serve as an appropriate complement to the present paper's perspective. The possible fit between findings in this study and in social identity theory should be explored in future research.

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CHAPTER 5

General Discussion and Conclusions

The major research objective of this thesis was to explore the organizing committee-stakeholder relationship for large-scale sporting events. This task was accomplished by determining the stakeholders that form an organizing committee's environment and by determining the organizing committee's issues and management strategies over time. It is now possible to combine the research data to describe each component of the organizing committee-stakeholder relationship. These components—the organizing committee, the stakeholders, and the relationship—are discussed based on the preceding three articles. The focus will be on the 1999 Pan American Games, with comparisons to the 2001 *Jeux de la Francophonie* (Games of La Francophonie) where appropriate.

The Organizing Committee

Examining an organizing committee involves describing the games, the organization's structure and its issues over time. In this thesis, image and identity management is a specific issue described in greater detail, focusing on the perceived images of the organizing committee and image/identity management aspects. Each of these aspects is described below.

Organizational Structure

The 1999 Pan American Games were prepared by the Pan American Games Society (PAGS), led by the Chairman of the Board of Directors. The Board of

Directors was composed of stakeholder representatives (community, government, and sport organizations), divisional chairs, and ex-officio members. A total of 37 individuals attended the Board's meetings. The Chairman assigned specific roles/divisions to individuals because of a particular expertise they had and because they were leading members in the Winnipeg business community. Each divisional chair then set out to build his/her division. Each division was responsible for the general direction and policies of a particular aspect of the Pan American Games. The divisions met with increasing frequency as the Games approached while the Board of Directors met consistently every three months and the Executive Committee every month. The volunteers had their own regular, paying, jobs but many spent as much time on the Games as they did in their respective regular, demanding jobs.

Initially, the Chairman set out to organize Games that were volunteer-driven and volunteer-delivered. There was only a small team of paid staff that handled the day-to-day issues, led by the President and Chief Executive Officer (President-CEO) of PAGS. Two years prior to the Games, there was a major restructuring in the organizing committee, spurred by the governments and the volunteers' needs for more support. This restructuring resulted in the Games' planning being staff-driven, but the Games remained volunteer-delivered. A parallel divisional staff structure was created. For example, the Chair of Sport led the volunteer part of the Sport division while the Vice-President of Sport led the staff part of the Sport division. A major part of this restructuring was the Chief Financial Officer becoming the Chief Operating Officer to help coordinate internal activities while the President-CEO focused on external (especially international) activities.

During the Games, the Venue Teams (Vteams) were responsible for all activities in their venue, except the field of play. The field of play was the responsibility of the various Sport Organizing Committees (SOCs). These SOCs were under the direction of the Sport Division and the Chair of Sport. While decisions were initially made by top management, by Games time, decision-making had been delegated to the Vteams for venue-related decisions and the SOCs for sport-related decisions.

PAGS termed this overall organizational structure the Western Canada Model. This model features a large reliance on the community and volunteers. It was created for the 1988 Calgary Olympics, then modified for the 1994 Victoria Commonwealth Games, and then PAGS further developed the model. PAGS's successes and challenges (e.g., the restructurings) were noted by the *Comité Organisateur des Jeux de la Francophonie* (Games of La Francophonie Organizing Committee; hereafter COJF). The COJF closely followed PAGS's divisional structure but used a greater number of staff from the beginning to drive the Games thereby avoiding the mirror structure and restructuring exercise. By the time the Games started, staff members were assigned responsibilities as Vteam leaders and SOC coordinators but every other individual who delivered the Games was a volunteer. Thus, the structural modifications of the Western Canada Model were made when "future" games organizing committees traveled to a "current" games. These modifications also occurred when current organizing committees hired past organizing committee members. This reflects knowledge transfer of an increasingly successful organizing committee model.

Current event management literature uses modes, phases and stages to describe an organizing committee's evolution. The findings within this thesis allow the terminology to be combined and specified. More precisely, PAGS members described the evolution of the organizing committee in terms of three operational modes: planning, implementation, and wrap-up. The planning mode included different phases: the bid phase, business plan, operational plan and divisional work packages. About two years prior to the Games—halfway through the organization's life—the members moved to the implementation mode with developed plans being converted into the venue plans. This 'venuization' of the plans was followed by the actual Games. Once the Games were over, the members moved into a wrap-up mode, at which time they wrote the final report and then managed the post-games activities, largely legacy management.

The present findings challenge and extend established frameworks about organizing committees when comparisons between their structure/evolution and the literature are made (cf. Getz, 1993; Hall, 1992). More precisely, established frameworks typically describe the organizing committee according to its structure but this description does not reflect interviewed managers' descriptions. These managers spoke of being in different working modes when discussing issues and strategies rather than describing issues and strategies in relation to the formal structure of their organization. Therefore, researchers examining event management must be conscious of the importance of operational modes when situating organizational activities and processes. In addition to being easier for the reader to situate described aspects, using these modes also decreases the time-consuming need to provide an organizational timeline, especially since different types of games have different organizing committee life spans (e.g., seven years for Olympic organizing committees, five years for Pan American Games, four years for the *Jeux de la Francophonie*, and typically one to three years for world championships). Therefore, using operational or functional modes standardizes sport event management language and makes it easier for research on specific cases to be generalized to the broader sport events population by facilitating comparisons.

Organizing Committee Issues

As for the organizing committee structure, differences were found between what managers discussed and what the literature proposed. In describing issues, the interviewees typically spoke of, for example, political 'wheelings and dealings', egos, and power in the same breath, or of communication, coordination, and interdependence at the same time. It therefore became easier to group issues into general categories as Ratnatunga and Muthaly (2000) attempted to do. However, their categories did not cover the range of issues discussed by PAGS managers. Consequently, Ratnatunga and Muthaly's categories were expanded upon, based on the fundamental, operational issues highlighted by PAGS managers, into the following categories: politics, visibility, financial, organizing, relationships, operations, sport, infrastructure, human resources, media, interdependence, participation, and legacy. This expanded list now allows researchers and sport managers to have a common base of terminology and understanding when discussing sport event organizing committee issues.

As alluded to earlier, when PAGS moved from one operational mode to the next, issues also changed. While issues were initially related to planning, they evolved into the 'venuization' of those plans and the actual operations/coordination of all activities and resources by the time the Games started. When the Games ended, the pre-planned legacy was managed and the final report was written. Issues related to organizing, financial, politics, relationships, and interdependence dominated the planning mode. Issues related to operations, sport, infrastructure, human resources, participation, and interdependence dominated the implementation mode. Issues related to legacy and human resources dominated the wrap-up mode. While other issues were present in each operational mode, they were less dominant.

Issues also depended on the hierarchical role of organizing committee managers. More precisely, broader or larger issues with greater impact (such as creating and controlling the budget) were dealt with by top managers. Middle managers were more concerned with division-specific issues. Lower managers dealt primarily with operational, human resources, relationship, and interdependence issues related to delivering the Games.

The purpose of the PAGS case study, which stemmed from the pilot study on the COJF, was to explore issues dealt with by an organizing committee. A lack of sufficient data prevented the use/analysis of issues raised by COJF interviewees and direct comparison to PAGS issues. However, a cursory examination of issues mentioned by the five COJF interviewees and seven stakeholder interviews—and a reflection on this author's experience as part of the COJF—suggests that the COJF issues also fall within the categories presented, thereby corroborating the PAGS case study findings. For example, once the Canadian bid for the *Jeux de la Francophonie* was won and the Games were offered to Ottawa-Gatineau, the emphasis was on preparing the business plan and overall organizing issues. As the COJF approached the time of the Games, focus shifted to coordinating efforts in the venues by increasing human resources and working on operations and infrastructure. When the Games were over, a volunteer committee was established to manage the legacy.

Therefore, the categories developed from the PAGS case study may apply to other events, including multi-sport events of different sizes. Although the *Jeux de la Francophonie* were smaller compared to the Pan American Games, with 16 events, 15 sites, 2,600 athletes, 400 officials, and over 3,000 volunteers, the findings still apply. Advanced knowledge of the types of issues that will likely be dealt with will help event managers save valuable time and resources in preparing and hosting their event. Using categories instead of specific issues allows generalization to different types of sport events such as between an event like the Pan American Games which is modeled on the Olympic Games and an event like the *Jeux de la Francophonie* which has political origins and offers half its events as cultural events. Examining the specific issues, or more precisely the factors surrounding a given issue, can provide researchers (and managers) with a greater understanding of the issue management process within sport event management. The following presents the factors associated with one major issue within the visibility issue category, organizational image and identity management. This is an issue which all organizing committees must face.

Organizational Image and Identity

Both PAGS and the COJF described themselves in various ways (their identity) and projected different images to various stakeholders. While it may be argued that an organization using and presenting multiple identities and images is inefficient and results in conflict, there was no evidence of this for PAGS or the COJF. The images and identities were complementary (as described below). As well, organizing committee members planned the various types of images to be presented, largely to be able to get and keep stakeholders onside.

Comparing how PAGS and the COJF described themselves and what images they presented revealed the same types of identities and images being presented by both organizing committees. The identities and images fell within the following categories: the nature of the context, the nature of the event, and the nature of the individuals. Most sport management researchers have examined the place or the stakeholder's perspective in relation to image and/or identity (cf. Chalip, Green & Hill, 2003; Molotch, Freudenburg & Paulsen, 2000; Ritchie & Smith, 1991; Silk & Andrews, 2001; Whitson & Macintosh, 1996). This study is one of the few studies presenting the organizing committee's perspective and examining all images/identities (cf. Lesjo, 2000; Pipan & Porsander, 2000; Porsander, 2000). Therefore both sport managers and researchers now have categories of images/identities which should be considered for image/identity construction or research.

Managing these organizational identities and images was also examined. The organizing committee creates identities and images based on the nature of the context, event and/or individual and then transmits these images to the stakeholders. These stakeholders receive the images but they also perceive other image terms, presumably from inter-stakeholder interactions, indicating the presence of indirect channels of image transmission, channels which cannot be truly controlled by organizing committee members. Stakeholders then comment on the images directly or indirectly through the media by voicing their support and/or concerns. The organizing committee determines whether or not to modify the images in their response to the stakeholders' statements. Stakeholders use the perceived image and identity concepts to evaluate the event and determine its success.

The continual feedback loop is maintained until the end of the Games with various strategies, which fall into one of two types: verbal and symbolic communication strategies. Verbal communication strategies are useful for reaching all stakeholders while symbolic communication strategies are more useful for indirect or geographically distant stakeholders such as the public and the delegations. As the importance of a stakeholder increases in terms of the organizing committee needing that stakeholder to achieve its goals, the number of strategies and/or the effort placed in the strategies increases. The use of the image and identity concepts by stakeholders and the effort placed by organizing committee members on image and identity management underscores the importance of this process in sport event management.

The Organizing Committee's Stakeholders

Examining the organizing committee's stakeholders involves determining who these stakeholders are, what issues are specific to each stakeholder, and which stakeholders are more important for the organizing committee.

According to Freeman's (1984) conceptualization of a focal organization, PAGS's board of directors would be considered the focal organization. PAGS's stakeholders therefore include the organizing committee's lower level paid staff and volunteers, governments, the community, sport organizations, the media, and of course the delegations. The COJF stakeholders were found to be the same, with the exception of the international governments (ambassadors and ministers) as an additional stakeholder group by virtue of the nature of these Games, a highly government-led games.

The list of stakeholders presented here is more inclusive than any in the existing sport event literature (cf. Emery, 2001; King, 1991; Yarbrough, 2000). But, this thesis's findings indicate that not all organizing committee members actually identify all stakeholder groups. Stakeholder identification depends on members' hierarchical level and relationship dealings. However, top management's stakeholder maps are typically more inclusive. Therefore, researchers wanting to know which stakeholders an organization deals with could query top management to obtain a reasonably inclusive stakeholder list. Any analysis relating to these stakeholders (e.g., salience) varies across hierarchical levels so top management findings cannot be generalized for the whole organization.

Most stakeholders across both settings were found to hold attributes of power, legitimacy, and urgency (cf. Mitchell, Agle & Wood, 1997). Over time, stakeholders could gain or lose one or more of these attributes. Such gains or losses typically occurred at the same time point. Changes in a stakeholder's attributes had been mentioned by Mitchell et al. However, this study demonstrated the pattern of attribute gain and/or loss. The dominant path was: power ↔ power/legitimacy ↔ power/legitimacy/urgency. In terms of Mitchell et al.'s terminology, this path would correspond to a dormant-dominant-definitive stakeholder pathway. Rarely did stakeholders hold attributes that did not include power. This study therefore provides empirical evidence of the attributes' relative importance where power and legitimacy are more likely to be present in salient stakeholders. But, if present, urgency has a greater impact on stakeholder salience than legitimacy, yet less impact than power. It can be argued that this fact is more important for managers to know than to be able to name the different stakeholder types. If managers know how stakeholders can change given their current attributes, they are able to anticipate stakeholder actions, thereby saving valuable time and resources in reacting to these stakeholders.

As for stakeholder lists changing down the hierarchy, so too did relative stakeholder salience. This salience was related to the number of attributes a stakeholder held but was moderated by managerial characteristics (hierarchical level and role). More discrimination was needed to fit the Mitchell et al. (1997) framework to managers' stated salience. A large factor was the number of power types—normative, coercive, and/or utilitarian—a stakeholder possessed. As the number of power types increased, so too did perceived stakeholder's salience. Evidence, unique to this study, pointed to possible cross-fertilization of stakeholder power types. For example, a stakeholder such as a sport organization who plays a gatekeeper role holds normative power but this power can be used in a coercive manner to stop a decision.

The overarching concern for all sport event stakeholder groups was the financial issue. Following the financial issue, stakeholders were found to have different needs, different issues specific to each group. More precisely, organizing committee members were concerned with issues of responsibility, or accountability, and authority (who has the right to make the decisions), accessing information and communicating, and being recognized for one's work—whether they are paid for it or not. Canadian governments were more concerned with the return on their investment in various forms: participating in decision-making processes, protocol issues, long-term legacy, being seen as assisting this initiative, and increasing opportunities for international trade. Community members were concerned with the quality of the event and its accessibility, as they wanted to participate, have fun, meet new people or businesses, network, and see benefits of some kind for themselves and their community. Sports organizations were concerned with all aspects of the field of play and—more so for the international and continental federations—they also expect to be treated as Very Important Persons (VIPs). Delegations were concerned about receiving an appropriate, international level of service. The media were concerned with the quality of services they would have access to in order to get their job done on time. As can be seen, these various issues related to the role played by each of the stakeholder groups. Sport managers and researchers now have a list of issues they can associate to the various stakeholders to know what to expect in terms of demands, thereby saving valuable time and resources by anticipating needs instead of always reacting to them as they arrive.

The Organizing Committee-Stakeholder Relationship

Examining the organizing committee-stakeholder relationship involved focusing on the organizing committee's management strategies. Findings indicate that while issues vary across time, hierarchy and stakeholders, strategies are more consistent across hierarchy and stakeholders. The major differences in strategic approach come as the organizing committee moves from one operational mode to the next. However, strategies and the decision-making process depend on two factors besides time: context and resources.

During the planning mode, time is on the organizing committee's side. Context and resources are the major decision-making factors. Organizing committee members are proactive in their planning activities and in approaching stakeholders to bring them onside. Deciding what they want to do is dependent on what they have, what they can get, and what they want to get. Contextual aspects such as the federal economic situation as well as the potential for accessing a desired number of volunteers (and any other resources needed) frame decisions. When plans are made, they are discussed with concerned stakeholders and needed changes are made. When the organizing committee moves into the implementation mode, time is of the essence, which impacts how organizing committee members make decisions. At this point, they mainly react to whatever comes to them. By Games time, there is no more time: "firefighting" or crisis management is the *modus operandi*. Once the Games are over, all the organizing committee has to do is write the final report and manage the legacy. Therefore resources once again frame members' decision-making. Since members pre-plan the legacy management, they are proactive at this stage. Throughout the games' planning and implementation process, the organizing committee members attempt to use a win-win approach in their stakeholder management because they understand the extent of their reliance on these stakeholders for a successful result.

This study is the first instance focusing on organizing committee strategic management. As for the issues presented above, sport event managers now have a better understanding of what to expect in terms of decision-making and what to factor into their decisions. Researchers can use these parameters or factors when exploring decision-making to help managers make decisions as all decisions are context-dependent. Such a framework can be more generalizable to different settings as the emphasis is on the decision-making factors and not specific strategies that may be too context-dependent. Managers would be more aware of what they should be considering when making decisions, thereby decreasing uncertainty in the decision-making process and increasing the likelihood of success.

As for the issues aspect, the PAGS case study was the focus for the management strategies. The idea and need to study organizing committee management strategies emerged from the pilot study on the COJF. Unfortunately, a shortage of data limited the conclusions that could be drawn from this study. However, a cursory look at the COJF data corroborates what was found with the PAGS study. When the COJF was created, it was proactive. The COJF started planning activities, and stakeholders were approached for their support. However, as time progressed and decisions were moved down the hierarchy, decisions became more about what needed to be done to make the Games happen. By Games time, COJF members were using a reactive approach, as they were in full "firefighting" mode. A crisis centre of sorts was even created, as it was with PAGS, to handle any major crises should they occur. After the Games, the COJF was again being proactive with its pre-planned legacy allocation.

Future Directions

Further research is needed on the knowledge transfer between major events. As stated earlier, there was some knowledge transfer between PAGS and the COJF. Another event that occurred in Winnipeg was the North American Indigenous Games (NAIG) in 2002. How was knowledge transferred to NAIG? What factors determine the level of knowledge transfer? Part cultural, part sport event as the *Jeux de la Francophonie* but held in Winnipeg, as were the Pan American Games, studying NAIG would provide additional insights into how knowledge is transferred between games and what factors impact decisions to use/not use past processes.

As well, this thesis provides initial inroads into decision-making within sport events, an increasingly high-velocity or fast-paced environment (cf. Eisenhardt, 1989). Findings in this study are presented as being relevant to a broader range of organizations than Eisenhardt's as they are presented using broader types of characteristics (context, resources, and time). Issues for future research include exploring velocity and decision-making over time by attending meetings of different organizations at a variety of different time points to determine inter-organizational and temporal differences, as well as exploring the limiting factors of decision-making. Doing a longitudinal comparative case study of temporary and traditional organizations would highlight differences and similarities in decision-making processes, as well as increase knowledge of this key managerial action.

In terms of the results relating to the stakeholder attribute pathway, they can be generalized to temporary organizations. However, does the dormant-dominant-definitive stakeholder pathway found in this thesis dominate in other types of organizations? Does this pathway dominate for various organizations in different countries and cultures? If these questions were answered, managers would be better able to anticipate stakeholder attribute changes and be prepared to meet stakeholders' demands or know that the stakeholders will be increasing (decreasing) in salience thereby increasing (decreasing) the need to meet their demands.

A number of aspects emerged, as data were gathered and analyzed, which could not be adequately considered in the context of this thesis. First, North Americans have a way of doing things that is different than in other parts of the world. Frank King (1991, p. 36) described European and North American business approaches as being nearly opposite in nature:

> Most successful European businesses are built on three main precepts: the first priority is preservation of the enterprise, the second is reward

> and recognition for the participants, and the third is good financial results. In North American business the priorities are reversed; usually the bottom line comes first.

As well, PAGS interviewees mentioned their difficulties when dealing with Latin American organizations. There are many different cultures around the world and each impact how organizations operate. How do different cultures impact sport event management and the success of games? Moreover, are these impacts affected by globalization trends? Answering these questions would contribute to our understanding of the impact of the environment on event management, especially in light of the increasing popularity of emerging markets such as China and its hosting of the 2008 Summer Olympic Games.

Second, many of the volunteers mentioned their difficulties with having full-time jobs as well as working for PAGS almost as though it were a full-time job. Staff commented on the amount of work volunteers took on for the Pan American Games. Moreover, some interviewees, especially in the sport division, commented on how they had to be careful when choosing the volunteers so as to not exhaust the sport volunteer pool in Manitoba. This fear was well founded as many top volunteers said the Games were their last major event thereby leaving no one to lead the next major event with sufficient experience and knowledge. How do volunteers balance their professional life with their work in a sport event? What is the appropriate ratio, if any, of volunteers to paid staff for the most efficient and effective running of a sport event? Answering these questions would benefit the sport event community by providing additional guidelines for efficient and effective running of present and future sport events in a region.

Third, a leadership issue emerged when comparing the COJF with PAGS. The leader for PAGS was often described as all that could be associated with a positive image of leadership, whereas the leader for the COJF was often described as quite the opposite (e.g., autocratic). Yet, both games were seen as ultimately successful by the community. In fact, the *Jeux de la Francophonie* made $2 million in profit while the Pan American Games reportedly broke even. So the question becomes, does leadership impact event preparation and outcome? If so, how—or perhaps the question is when? Answering these questions would assist in determining the relative importance of leader and follower qualities in preparing and hosting an event and, arguably, in any other organization's actions.

Fourth, when one mentions the Olympic Games, issues related to power and politics often come to mind. With the basic framework of the stakeholders and the operations of a large-scale sporting event determined, researchers can now move to examining the underlying processes and mechanisms. One of these mechanisms is power and politics. How do these "hidden" aspects impact event preparation, both positively and negatively? How do these issues pervade specific aspects of event management such as strategies, leadership, and issues? How does a win-win approach fit with issues of power and politics? These are questions that should be addressed. Likewise, one of the major reasons—likely *the* reason—stakeholders are needed in events is for the resources these stakeholders bring to the table. Comparing relative levels of the different power types (normative, coercive and utilitarian) described in Mitchell et al. (1997), and their impact on the organizing committee, is also needed. How does resource dependence factor into relationships between the organizing committee and its stakeholders, given the importance of resources? Answering these questions would provide greater insight into the processes that occur in sport events.

Finally, sport event management researchers can properly move to the hidden processes of events as described by Bourdieu (1994) since the sport event literature now has a greater understanding of the apparent processes of sport events. Questions relating to leadership, power and culture mentioned above would fall into the hidden processes category, as would questions relating to games' nationally-biased televised nature and games as a media spectacle (cf. Silk, 1999). Answering the preceding questions would build on the knowledge this thesis has provided and develop the field of sport event management research.

Some researchers have started making inroads into this aspect. For example, Larson and Wikström (2001) use a conflict perspective to show how power games, conflict and tensions are unavoidable within the context of events. Larson (2002) also focuses on the political aspect to relationship marketing in festivals. Comparing the root causes of power games, politics, and conflict with the issue categories and strategies described in this paper would begin linking the apparent and hidden processes of events. Likewise, combining this thesis's findings and the project management approach to events (cf. O'Toole, 2000; O'Toole & Mikolaitis, 2002) would further the integration of practical and theoretical knowledge for large-scale sporting events, their managers, and their researchers.

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APPENDIX A

Am I a Post-Positivist?

In order to properly frame research in the social sciences, it is useful to make explicit the usually implicit ontological and epistemological stances of the researcher as they can have an impact on data collection, analysis and interpretation (Guba, 1990a; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Following this suggestion, this appendix is a reflection on my research background in relation to ontological and epistemological choices, on the problems I faced in terms of determining my ontology and epistemology when I started doing more reading on social research, and on the result of that quest and its implications for my research. Each aspect is described below. But first, I provide some basic definitions to use as a foundation since there can be variations as to where certain concepts fit (cf. Crotty, 1998; Stanley, 1990).

Basic definitions

It is my understanding that *ontology* is the theory of being, of reality, whereas *epistemology* is the theory of knowledge. Epistemology deals with the nature of knowledge and is embedded within the theoretical perspective. As such, it is also embedded within research methodologies (Crotty, 1998). According to Crotty (1998), there are three main epistemologies: objectivism, constructionism, and subjectivism. However, this is a debated point since, as represented by Denzin and Lincoln (2000), traditional thought provides only two main epistemologies: objectivism and subjectivism. In this case, constructionism or, more precisely, social constructionism as well as constructivism are seen to be theoretical stances or paradigms within a subjectivist epistemology.

A *theoretical perspective* is the philosophical stance or paradigm framing the research (Crotty, 1998; Morgan, 1983a). It helps to draw out underlying assumptions that may be found within the methodology such as how many voices to include or how data should be presented. It therefore provides a process for the methodology and helps to ground the methodology's logic and evaluation criteria. Examples of theoretical perspectives include positivism/post-positivism, interpretivism, critical theory, and feminism (Crotty, 1998).

Methodology is the plan of action or research design explaining the choice of methods and linking that choice to the research's desired outcomes. As Crotty (1998) argued, there is no one methodology that is tied to one particular theoretical perspective. Methodologies include experiments, quasi-experiments, case studies, discourse analysis, grounded theory, and action research. The actual techniques/procedures used to collect and analyze the data in relation to a particular research question are called the *methods*. Data collection methods include observations, surveys, and interviews, while data analysis methods include statistical analysis, content analysis, comparative analysis, and pattern-matching (Crotty, 1998).

Personal Background

Throughout my high school and undergraduate years, I studied in the "pure" or natural sciences, focusing on physiology and biochemistry. As such, the leading and arguably only epistemological stance instilled in me, consciously and unconsciously, was objectivism with its associated theoretical stance, positivism. Using a positivist stance meant finding the truth that is out there in order to predict and ultimately control this reality (Guba, 1990a). Science or knowledge is arrived at through direct experience (Crotty, 1998). Positivism is found within an objectivist epistemology where the observer adopts a distant position to the object, the Archimedean point. Therefore, meaning exists outside any consciousness—described as a realist ontology—and is discovered through scientific inquiry (Crotty, 1998; Guba, 1990a). However, a positivist world is not the everyday world people experience; it is seen as an abstraction, as highly systematic, and as well organized (Crotty, 1998).

The positivist stance was appropriate for my studies in muscle and skin development as I was dealing with cells that I would control in order to examine and, hopefully, predict behaviour. However, it became problematic when I started studying the world of large-scale sporting events where human beings act in relation to each other and to an event they are creating. This philosophical stance no longer seemed appropriate in this socially constructed world, even though the event was still one reality composed of different actors who were more knowledgeable about certain areas of that reality than others. For example, the governments had a better understanding of the funding negotiations than did a technical sport official by virtue of the government's presence and the technical sport official's absence during those negotiations. I could no longer control the environment I was studying. This was an uncomfortable realization for someone who was taught to think that the natural sciences methodologies/methods and views were the only "true" and scientific way to do research.

With this in mind, my introduction to Michael Crotty's (1998) description of the various perspectives within social research provided me with an interesting alternative. Instead of the objective-subjective absolute or only choice for epistemology (see Samdahl, 1998), Crotty (1998) presented an intermediate alternative that combines both epistemologies: constructionism. The author presented constructionism as an epistemology since "all knowledge, and therefore meaningful reality, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and being developed and transmitted within and essentially social context" (Crotty, 1998, p. 42). Constructionism brings the objectivist and subjectivist epistemologies together. The researcher is a *bricoleur*, a craftsman, making sense of the data she has in front of her as Lévi-Strauss explained (cf. Crotty, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Constructionists see meaning as being collectively generated and transmitted. We are born in a socially constructed world. In this sense, culture shapes how people see things, providing them with a specific way to view the world. A given culture has one socially constructed reality, not multiple individual realities. Meaning builds on previous meaning. According to Crotty (1998), constructionism is both realist and relativist in ontological terms. Something may be socially constructed but it is real (realism) and different cultures or worlds will have different realities (relativism).

For a time, this view seemed to fit fairly well with my experience of working for the *Jeux de la Francophonie* (Games of La Francophonie). More precisely, I still thought that there was one reality, the event, and that we—the employees—constructed and reacted to it. I still thought that each individual could explain a piece of the reality such as one department's role and perspective. Had it been a different set of individuals or a different culture, the event would not have been the same. However, I did not want to go as far as saying that each individual within the organizing committee had a completely different view of the event. Had that been so, the event would not have been successful because of a lack of common vision and understanding between individuals in different departments.

The Problem

While the previous epistemology seemed to describe my view of the world, I came to the realization that this conceptualization, that constructionism is an epistemology, is not a general view. More precisely, while preparing for my candidacy exams, I realized that constructionism is usually presented as social constructionism, under an interpretivist perspective with a much more subjectivist epistemological stance, and is usually described as purely relativist in nature (see Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Constructionism was no longer an epistemology but a sub-category of an interpretivist theoretical perspective. As well, I realized that the extreme positions of objectivity and subjectivity are still presented as such, with rare mention of this conceptualization as either being a construction of the author's mind based on his understanding or of the fact that these positions can be placed on a continuum (cf.

Firestone, 1990; Samdahl, 1998). In addition, I realized that there could be a range of views on any given theoretical perspective showing overlap and intermingling between paradigms. For example, a "softer" post-positivism and a realist/relativist social constructionism are described in similar ways (cf. Crotty, 1998; Firestone, 1990). Finally, I realized that all paradigm research coming after positivism can be called post-positivistic (L. M. Smith, 1990). My one comfort in this confusion was that experts in the field seemed to also be confused about the paradigm dialog (Guba, 1990b).

I came to realize that the (definitional) problem lies mainly at the epistemological level. For example, is constructionism truly an epistemological stance? As such, I chose to go above and below that epistemological level in order to determine my own stance and then attach the appropriate term to that stance. I chose to go to the ontological level and to the theory/methodology level to do so. I will now describe what I believe at the ontological level and then describe the assumptions underlying my choice in theory and methodology in order to discern my epistemological stance.

A Critical Realist Ontology

In re-reading Miles and Huberman (1994), I came across an explanation of their perspective, critical or transcendental realism, which was intriguing to me. Critical realism is not the traditional empirical realism put forth by positivists and even "hard" post-positivists (Bhaskar, 1989). Objects are not completely separate from subjects. Reality is socially constructed (see Berger & Luckmann, 1967) and even the staunchest supporter of positivism can admit this (Crotty, 1998). However, that does not necessarily mean that each individual creates his or her own reality, as the more extreme subjectivists would argue (Bhaskar, 1989). Individuals are the "product of what they have done or what has been done to them in the particular social relations into which they were born and in which they have lived" (Bhaskar, 1989, p. 7). Knowledge is therefore a social and historical product (House, 1991). Society will "socialize" individuals and, in turn, individuals will reproduce and transform society. The critical realist is a *bricoleur* "fashioning a product out of the material and with the tools available to him or her" (Bhaskar, 1989, p.78). Events and discourses are real but, in order to understand them, a researcher must understand the differentiated and changing structures that produce the patterns of such events and discourses (Bhaskar, 1989).

Knowledge, from a critical realist point of view, is cumulative in nature without its monistic character and acknowledges differences in views without delving into subjectivism. As such, there is an epistemic relativity inherent within critical realism as knowledge is transient in nature and beliefs are socially constructed. It does not, however, go as far as stating that there can be no rational grounds for preferring one explanation over another (Bhaskar, 1989). Society is neither purely numerical/objective in nature nor is it purely individualistic/subjective in nature. Instead, society is a "complex and causally efficacious whole—a totality, whose concept must be constructed in theory, and which is being continually transformed in practice" (Bhaskar, 1989, pp. 87-88). Critical realism is therefore about common sense. This is the basis of critical realists' beliefs.

As Bhaskar (1989) explained, critical realists want to understand the relationship between structures and human agency, based on a transformational conception of social activity. Critical realists argue for a relational view of society. Human activity is contingent upon social structures. Agents are active in nature and their "activities may depend on or involve (a) unacknowledged conditions, (b) unintended consequences, (c) the exercise of tacit skills, and/or (d) unconscious motivation" (Bhaskar, 1989, p. 4). This also means that there is a relational link between the object of knowledge and the development of knowledge. Due to this transcendental nature of reality, it becomes possible to study society and its structures (Bhaskar, 1989).

Critical realism also falls within an anti-positivist naturalism. More precisely, natural and social sciences can both be studied scientifically and in natural settings. Considering the properties of a given society will determine if that society can be studied scientifically and with which methodology (Bhaskar, 1989). This follows Max Weber's point that societies can be understood and explained approximately as opposed to accurately (cf. Crotty, 1998). In order to reject theories in social science in a rational manner, the criteria must be explanatory but not predictive in nature. Moreover, social science research must take into account the concept-dependence, activity-dependence, and space-time-dependence of social structures (Bhaskar, 1989). Social structures are patterns of interactions (Berger & Luckmann, 1967). There is a certain sense of regularity in social structures that can be understood and explained (Morgan, 1983b).

One aspect to consider is how a reality is seen within critical realism. Critical realism is relational in nature. It is about the relationship between social structures and human agency or between different actors or organizations in this thesis. Critical realism therefore stands opposed to atomistic individualism but also to undifferentiated collectivism as different actors have different needs, interests, and perspectives. Actors are therefore defined according to what they have done and what has been done to them (Bhaskar, 1989). Reality, or more to the point, social reality, is therefore, essentially, a network of relationships.

This discovery finally brought clarity to my own epistemological and ontological stance search. There was an ontological position that acknowledged that society was socially constructed—society can be presented as constraining human action with human action being able to transform society—but that also acknowledged the possibility of explaining a social phenomenon. This explanation could approximate a truth through a given theoretical lens, with important notions such as history, theoretical conceptualization, and space-time being acknowledged as influencing the explanation. I could be a *bricoleuse*, finding out what could come out of the data I would have in front of me, without having to go as far as stating (as in a constructivist paradigm) that differences between informants are due to individuals and their respective (multiple) realities and not being able to combine, compare, and/or contrast them since none would be seen as any closer to the reality of the sport event than another. This critical realist position finally described how I saw, and still see, the preparation and hosting of an event: as the creation of a network of actors interacting between themselves to produce a sport event. I could also present a "scientific" piece of research with a setting that could not be controlled or ever hope to be controlled.

Theoretical and Methodological Choices and Consequences

My research focuses on the large-scale sporting event organizing committee-stakeholder relationship in order to determine who the stakeholders are, what they want, how the stakeholder groups and their issues are managed, and how image and identity are constructed within this relationship. As such, the management literatures focusing on stakeholder theory and on image and identity provide a good theoretical foundation to answer these research questions.

Within stakeholder theory, the concept of stakeholder salience is dealt with in order to determine the stakeholders to which the focal organization must pay most attention. As Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) stated, stakeholders' power, legitimacy and urgency attributes are socially constructed concepts and not truly objective in nature. Dutton and Jackson (1987) also said that labelling an issue as an opportunity or threat has a profound impact on the ensuing interpretation of the issue by managers. This sense-making aspect is also found within the image/identity literature with identity being described as a social construction of the central, distinctive, and enduring elements of an organization (cf. Albert & Whetten, 1985; Gioia, Schultz & Corley, 2000).

It must be noted that these social constructions, or sense-making activities, are done in a structured system, an organization. As such, unlike the individualist focus of subjectivism and its multiple realities (cf. Denzin & Lincoln, 2000), the structures within the organization help focus and restrict/constrain members' range of sense-making processes and outcomes for a given organization. The organization therefore helps to socialize the members in its terms and, in turn, the members reproduce that world and transform it toward a desired end-point. Of course, there is some variation between individuals. Without this variation, there would not be transformation. Members' intentions are therefore examined within the organization's social structures framework, the structures being real entities. Viewing members as having the power of purposive action as well as second-order monitoring or evaluation capabilities is not only critical to a scientific examination of the research setting but is also consistent with both critical realism and the three aspects of stakeholder theory—descriptive, instrumental, and normative (cf. Donaldson & Preston, 1995; House, 1991).

In the context of my thesis, the sport event world is mainly seen through a stakeholder theory lens. Facts within this study are therefore theory-laden. As well, the focus is on the basic structures (e.g., stakeholders) of the world of large-scale sporting events and on the relationships between these structures. Given that this world is viewed through a particular lens/description, it is also relative in nature. But, this does not mean that anything goes; a rationally adequate explanation of this world must (and will) still preside. This is in line with a critical realist position (cf. House, 1991).

Supporting this view of the world is the choice of a case study approach, as described by Yin (2003). As Stake (2000) argued, a case study is a social construction. In order to build the case study, semi-structured open-ended interviews are used. Such a data gathering technique is consistent with the stance taken thus far: each individual may have a different view of the issues in question but these individuals are not independent of each other. As such, their interaction with the event, individuals and organizations has helped them make sense of the world of the event individually, and then collectively as an organization. Using archival material helps describe both individual and collective perspectives. Moreover, doing case study research must be scientifically rigorous. The case study's findings are evaluated according to construct validity, external validity, and reliability (Yin, 2003). Triangulation of interviews and archival material data, a logical chain of evidence, generalizability to the study's theoretical framework, and an explicit description of the protocol help to verify the study's validity and reliability. This also points to a critical realist view: the use of a theoretical lens to rationally explain the social structures of interest.

The Choice: Post-Positivism or Social Constructionism or Both?

So far, I have used my research background, ontology, theory, and methodology to show how and why I believe in and follow a critical realist perspective as described by Bhaskar (1989). However, the question becomes, as the title of this chapter indicates, whether or not I am a post-positivist. The answer depends on the source used to describe post-positivism. More precisely, it depends on the view of whether post-positivism and social constructionism, or constructivism and its related interpretivist stances, are mutually exclusive or whether they are placed on a continuum and can be used in cross-paradigm research (cf. Firestone, 1990; Samdahl, 1998).

It may be better to view what is seen as post-positivism and social constructionism on a continuum, as argued by Firestone (1990) and Samdahl (1998), and then determining the strength or closeness of the stance to positivist tenets. For example, Crotty (1998) describes a fairly strong post-positivism, strong or hard in the sense of it still being close to positivist tenets, but with the acknowledgement that an Archimedean point cannot be reached. This non-foundationalist position does not mean that relativism dominates or that anything is acceptable (J. K. Smith, 1990). The strength of post-positivism also depends on whether or not the researcher sees meaningful reality as being value-neutral and/or ahistorical and/or cross-cultural, with increasing negative views of these elements moving the researcher further away from positivism and closer to constructionism (Crotty, 1998).

At the other end of the continuum, a hard constructionism would be one described by Denzin and Lincoln (2000) where reality is socially constructed thereby depicting a multiple realities (relativist) subjectivist view with all realities having equal validity—there is no Truth as such. However, Crotty (1998) presented a softer view of constructionism where reality is socially constructed but patterns can be found in relation to taken-for-granted norms of the society because meaning is collectively generated and transmitted. He did acknowledge that while such an interpretivist stance started with Weber's idea of understanding toward adequate explanation, the explanatory element has since been abandoned. Guba's (1990a) view is similar to Crotty's in the sense of presenting constructivists as individuals who believe that facts are theory- and value-laden, that realities exists in the form of multiple individual mental constructions (relativist ontology), that theory can never be fully tested, and that findings emerge out of the interaction between inquirer and inquired into (subjectivist epistemology). While Guba (1990a) may have stated that constructivists are relativist, L. M. Smith (1990) pointed out that some researchers using this paradigm are, in fact, realists. This last view was my initial understanding of constructionism after reading Crotty (1998).

Firestone (1990) showed how both paradigms compare in an effort to demonstrate that these paradigms can be accommodated together:

1) Both agree that reality is socially constructed, the extent of which differs (less for post-positivism, more for constructionism);
2) Post-positivists see researcher theorizing as taking precedence over local interpretation while constructionists argue for the opposite;
3) Both positions allow for judgment on the adequacy of the research findings;
4) Both positions are tentative about generalization across settings and both look for ways to do just that; and
5) Contextualization and thick descriptions can be found in both positions; it simply depends on the methodology and methods used.

The key to an accommodative view is the rejection of the idea that there is a ruling or supreme science. Showing how both views can be similar, Firestone (1990) argued that deciding on the best paradigm becomes an ontological position. This is because, fundamentally and as described by many (e.g., Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Guba, 1990a), a post-positivist still believes in a certain Truth, even if it can never be achieved, and findings are always dependent on the theoretical lens used. A constructionist will place more emphasis on the relativist nature of reality and on research that is only there to understand, not explain.

It must be noted that this is only a limited selection of readings on the topic. As mentioned previously, the more one reads on the topic, the more differing views can be found. As such, a researcher cannot assume that her views will be automatically understood by the reader when a position is stated. Nevertheless, it is easier to do so from an ontological perspective as confusion seems less pervasive.

Therefore, I am a critical realist!

Given the previous comparison of post-positivism and constructionism, I would state that, in the post-positivist/constructionist continuum, I am just off the continuum's centre on the post-positivist side. In other words, I am a soft post-positivist. A large part of this assertion (versus a soft-constructionist) is based on my belief in using a theoretical lens to ground the theory and ensuing research, in the possibility of explaining social phenomenon, and in the possibility of building knowledge but still being able to be critical about what is already "known".

My post-positivist position is close to Guba's (1990a) post-positivism. Guba proposed that softer post-positivists use a critical realist ontology and a modified objectivist epistemology. The modified objectivist epistemology recognizes that findings will emerge from the researcher-researched interaction. Therefore, objectivity is a regulatory ideal achievable by letting the data speak for itself as much as possible (i.e., a certain sense of neutrality on the part of the researcher), by stating one's predispositions (the goal of this appendix), by following the critical tradition of the academic field, and by submitting the findings to a critical community (e.g., the thesis defence examining committee, reviewers, and readers) (Guba, 1990a).

Berger and Luckmann (1967) showed how society is an objective reality. Since reality is socially constructed, the search for Truth from a critical realist, soft post-positivist perspective becomes the search for what the participants commonly see as (generally agree to be) true (Phillips, 1990; J. K. Smith, 1990). Objectivity is therefore a function of intersubjective verifiability (Cook, 1983). Nevertheless, this does not mean that for something to be agreed as true it must be mentioned by most interviewees. An idea may be so taken-for-granted that it is a given and only one person may mention it, but it still fits with different ideas presented by the other interviewees. This Truth is also contingent upon time since society, being socially constructed, changes (Berger & Luckmann, 1967). As such, there can be a right and wrong interpretation of data. That is of course providing the information's veracity has been verified (e.g., informant verification, triangulation of data).

Implications for the Present Research

Being a critical realist with a post-positivist tendency has implications for my thesis. First, it means that there can be one better interpretation of data than another. Research from this perspective is a search for interesting knowledge—a search for a Truth that is worth searching for but that probably cannot be found (Firestone, 1990). The theory used impacts on the type of knowledge gathered because any one phenomenon can be conceptualized and studied in different ways, yielding different kinds of insights (Duda, 1999; Morgan, 1983c). Ultimately, uncertainty means making a rational choice and it means a certain level of relativism (Morgan, 1983c). Nevertheless, there is a "better" solution to be found from the data—rationally, through comparisons between sources and through the use of theory—instead of presenting all views and treating all of these views as equal. However, all views must be used initially when looking for patterns, regularities, and differences in the data. Triangulation is essential, as are the chain of evidence, rationality, logic, and common sense. Therefore, concepts of validity and reliability can be used in order to determine the quality of the research process and findings. Also, rigour and relevance must be balanced through the use of more natural settings while being rigorous in methodology; precision and richness must be balanced through the use of more qualitative but precise methods; elegance and applicability must be balanced through the emergence of new theory or theoretical concepts as being a product of the inquiry not a precursor; and discovery and verification must be balanced through having both concepts present in the research as much as possible given the research question (Guba, 1990a).

Second, while I interact with the object (e.g., interviewees) in order to generate data, I can decrease my influence on responses by, for example, not leading the interviewee toward a certain answer but letting the interviewee explain what s/he means, by ensuring confidentiality in order to get the most truthful answer possible, and by comparing between sources to find the pattern of Truth as seen from a stakeholder theory lens. Of course, depending on each individual interviewee, I may get some variation in answers (e.g., depth of knowledge), which can be remedied through supplementing the responses of that interviewee with other sources.

Finally, my position allows not only for an understanding of the issue at hand but also an explanation of the basic structures at work. As such, findings from this thesis can—and should—be used as the (theoretical) foundation for future research, which is consistent with a critical realist/soft post-positivist stance.

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APPENDIX B

Interview Guides

Organizing Committee Interview Guide

1. Please describe the organizing committee?

Prompt for goals/objectives, strengths/weaknesses, obstacles, its internal/external images

2. How would you define the organizing committee? (Not-for-profit, corporation/business, network of alliances, project, temporary, etc.)
3. What was your role within the organizing committee?
4. Which organizations do you think were particularly important for the preparation and hosting of the Games?
    a. How would you describe each individual/organization? How did they act toward the organizing committee in general?
    b. What were the reasons for collaborating with this individual/organization?
    c. What image was presented to this stakeholder? Was this image modified over time? How? Why?
    d. In your opinion, what were the initial desired results of this partnership?
        i. Were they realistic?

        ii. Did these expectations change over the course of the partnership?
        iii. Did these expectations have to be met all the time? Some of the time? Almost never?
        iv. Were the desired results reached?
    e. How was the partnership managed?
        i. Who was responsible for managing the relationship?
        ii. What issues or problems arose during the partnership?
            1. Which ones were more important
            2. How did the stakeholder behave (tactics) for the issue, if they acted at all?
        iii. How were they resolved? What strategy was used? By whom? How long did it take? What was the issue's impact on the organization? Was the issue seen as legitimate?
    f. Were there needs that could not be met because other stakeholders' needs were deemed more important? Give examples. Why? How was this decision made? By whom?

5. Were there individuals and/or organizations that had an effect on the image that the organizing committee projected? How? Major or minor?
    a. What was the role of the media?
    b. Was any person, group or organization more influential than the media organizations in the image construction process in your opinion?

6. How would you rank the stakeholders that you identified (i.e., from most important to least important)?
    a. Why?
    b. Did this order change over time? In what way?
    c. Were there differences between Canadian and international stakeholders?

If the interviewee mentions contradictory needs/expectations:

7. In general, how were the contradictory demands managed?
    a. What strategies were used?
    b. What was the decision-making process to determine the priorities?
    c. Who made the decisions?
    d. Did this process affect the relationship between the organizing committee and specific stakeholders? How?
8. How did you know what to do?
9. What main tip would you give to future organizing committees?
10. Is there anything else that you would like to mention in relation to the Games?

Stakeholder Interview Guide

1. What is your role within your organization at the time of the Games?
2. What was your role during the Games?
3. How did you learn about the Games and its organizing committee? Who initiated contact?

4. Which department or individual managed the collaboration between the two organizations? Was the collaboration with headquarters, with the organization in general, or with a department/affiliated organization?
5. Why did your organization affiliate itself with the organizing committee?
    a. What factors led to this decision?
    b. How was this partnership related to your needs?
6. Initially, how did your organization perceive the organizing committee?
    a. What was your initial perception of the image of the organizing committee?
    b. Did this perception change over time? How? Before vs. During vs. After the event.
7. Initially, what were the desired results for the partnership?
    a. Did these expectations change over the course of the partnership?
8. How did the partnership develop? How did it change over time?
9. How did you communicate with the organizing committee? How did you have access to the organizing committee?
10. How was the relationship with the organizing committee managed?
    a. Who managed the relationship?
    b. What issues/problems developed over the course of the partnership?
        i. How did you behave (tactics used) for this issue?
        ii. Was the issue seen as legitimate?
        iii. What was the issue's impact on the organization?

   c. How did you ensure that your needs were met?
   d. How were the issues/problems resolved?
   e. Were there times when you thought that your needs were pushed aside by the organizing committee in favour of another individual/organization?

11. In your opinion, what was the role of the media organizations in constructing the image of the organizing committee? Was any other organization as influential or more so?
12. Did the media have an impact on your relationship with the organizing committee?
    a. Did any other individual/organization have as large an impact or a larger impact?
13. What is your opinion on the results of the partnership?
    a. Were the desired outcomes achieved? How?
14. To what extent was the relationship with the organizing committee and its Games important for your organization?
15. Can you describe your relationship with the other organizations affiliated with the Games?
16. How did you/your organization know what needed to be done?
17. Is there anything else that you would like to mention in relation to the Games?

APPENDIX C

Definitions of Stakeholder Attributes and Coding Rules

Power is the (potential) ability of stakeholders to impose their will on a given relationship through coercive, utilitarian or normative means.

A legitimate stakeholder is one whose actions and claims are seen as appropriate, proper, and desirable in the context of the social system.

Urgency is the degree to which a stakeholder believes its claims are time-sensitive or critical.

Statements about stakeholders were coded as yes, no, or varying.

Stakeholder types were determined by the Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) typology, reproduced below in Table C1.

TABLE C1

Mitchell et al.'s (1997) Power, Legitimacy, Urgency Typology

Stakeholder Typology	Attributes
Non-Stakeholder	None
Demanding	Urgency
Discretionary	Legitimacy
Dormant	Power
Dependent	Legitimacy + Urgency
Dangerous	Power + Urgency
Dominant	Power + Legitimacy
Definitive	Power + Legitimacy + Urgency

Coding of Power Use

- Awards Games: normative; rights holder of the Games
- Chooses events: utilitarian; has power to dictate the events that will be presented at the Games
- Go/no go: utilitarian; puts a stop to the Games or an activity
- Human resources: utilitarian; support through personnel lending
- Laws: normative*; stakeholder makes the laws that must be followed by the organizations
- Monetary: utilitarian; financial support
- Protocol: normative; procedure, etiquette, code of behaviour, set of rules (written or unwritten) that should be followed by members of the stakeholder group (e.g., VIP treatment) or the event
- Presence of athletes/artists: normative* or utilitarian (depending on how interviewee presents the issue); they are the reason for the Games, determines which athletes/artists attend the Games
- Resources: utilitarian; mixed resource support (in-kind, human, monetary, other)
- Responsible for international contracts: normative, by tradition, by long-time arrangement, stakeholder is responsible for issues pertaining to getting and managing contracts with international organizations
- (Sport) rules & regulations: normative; event specifications and nature, rules and regulations pertaining to the actual sport event (rights holder/sanction of event and sports)

- Technical delegate: utilitarian; stakeholder sends representative to oversee the specifications of the event

*A definitional issue arose regarding certain normative power sources during data analysis. These sources seem to impact/modify other sources if used, or can be transformed into all three types of power.